

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 20, 1873.

The Week.

MR. DAWES has been defeated by Mr. Boutwell, who becomes Vice-President Wilson's successor in the Senate. Mr. Dawes's defeat is due to various causes, but he made so good a fight after the affair was generally supposed settled in Mr. Boutwell's favor that it appears as if but a very little more weight in his scale would have turned the beam in his favor—perhaps it would have been enough if he had kept himself out of the *Crédit Mobilier* business and had not equivocated when McComb's memorandum came out. If so, his failure is another reading of the lesson that a little thin-skinnedness, where personal honor and delicacy are concerned, may sometimes turn out as valuable to a public man as the most pachydermatous toughness. Mr. Bayard, for example, makes no bad showing beside Mr. Colfax, even regarding the thing as one of good policy alone. Some friends of Mr. Dawes, who adhered to his cause to the end, felt from the beginning that his record in the matter was badly against him. Every member from Massachusetts west of Worcester County, and about half the Worcester County members, voted for him, giving him half the total number of votes that he obtained. But a line drawn through Charles Street in Boston is said to divide the population of the State into two parts nearly equal, and the east of the State was strongly for Boutwell. Suffolk gave Dawes but 15 to Boutwell's 35; Middlesex stood 10 to 35, and Essex 11 to 22. Mr. Boutwell goes out of the Treasury with all the respect due in these days to a man who has remained pure and above reproach under no ordinary temptations.

Mr. Boutwell having passed the Senate, the vacant place in the Treasury Department has been filled, in spite of divers rumors about other gentlemen, as was anticipated, by Mr. Richardson, the Assistant Secretary. The objections to him are that he is an obscure man, who has not as yet given evidence of ability in any department; that he is a friend of General Butler; and, although last not least, that he holds firmly to the theory that the Secretary of the Treasury has the right to expand the currency of the country to the extent of forty-four millions of dollars, in his discretion. He carried out this theory to a limited extent last fall, and for so doing was severely reprovved by a Committee of the Senate in language which public opinion found none too strong, and which ought to have rendered his further tenure of even the subordinate office he then held impossible. In appointing him therefore to a seat in the Cabinet, the President not only disregards the opinion of the Committee of the Senate but public opinion on this important matter, and adopts the Richardson doctrine.

Mr. Boutwell and Mr. Richardson have themselves shown their disregard of the report of the Committee by issuing two or three millions of greenbacks within the last fortnight to meet appropriations made by Congress, and hold, we believe, that where any doubt exists as to the right to do this, it is to be presumed that the Secretary possesses it. The Forty-second Congress, which had time enough to vote itself "back pay," had not time enough to settle this most important question, and Mr. Richardson goes into office armed with a power over the property and contracts of the people of the United States such as nobody but a despotic ruler in the worst times of European or Asiatic history has ever claimed. We see in this, in spite of the separation of the executive and legislative branches of the Government, the necessity created by the increasing complications of modern life for thorough knowledge, on the part of the President, of human experience on great economical problems.

Mr. Richardson was for some years a judge of probate in his native State, and in his own and Mr. Boutwell's county of Middlesex, and we do not know that he had held any other office till Mr. Boutwell called him to Washington to be Assistant Secretary of the Treasury. This place and his judgeship he continued to hold at one and the same time, in spite of public comment on conduct felt to be somewhat indecent, Massachusetts being still tender on the subject of judicial dignity as well as judicial probity. At length somebody introduced in the Massachusetts Legislature a resolution which, if we recollect right, was passed, enquiring whether any judicial officer of the State, etc., etc.; whereupon Mr. Richardson sent in his resignation of his judgeship and kept his secretaryship. In this latter position he is best known for his connection with the famous *Syndicate* affair, in which, however, he acted as the agent and messenger of his chief.

The last week or two has finished a chapter in the history of civil-service reform which we shall sum up without note or comment. When the Surveyorship of this port was vacated by the resignation of Mr. Cornell, Mr. Benedict, who has filled the Deputy-Surveyorship for a great many years, was nominated by the President, and all the leading papers warmly applauded this adherence to "the rules," and the Administration organ called attention to it as an illustration of General Grant's fidelity to his promises. While Mr. Benedict's name was before the Senate, the members of the New York Ring began to proclaim that he would never be nominated, and finally one of them declared positively that the President had promised to withdraw him. A week later, he did withdraw him, which at first looked badly, but cavillers and doubters were silenced by the announcement that the place would still be filled "under the rules," inasmuch as the next best man for it would be selected from the other Custom-house employees by a committee of examination consisting of Messrs. George William Curtis, Jackson S. Schultz, and Collector Arthur. To an arrangement of this sort it was impossible to refuse confidence, so we waited patiently. No examination or report by the committee, however, was heard of, and last Friday Gen. Sharpe, the Marshal of this District, and an active politician, was nominated for the place. On Monday morning there appeared in the *Tribune* a letter, evidently written by Mr. Curtis's authority, declaring that the committee "had never, to the knowledge of Mr. Curtis, taken any action in the premises whatever"; and that if they had done so, "it was without consulting him, and against a specific promise of one of them"; and that "if 'Marshal Sharpe had been appointed in violation of the rules,' it was without his [Mr. Curtis's] knowledge or consent," and adding significantly that "men do not willingly consent to be thus publicly snubbed." The Postmaster here has resigned, too, and his place been filled by a Custom-house officer.

The rule under which this odd performance has taken place prescribes that, when a vacancy occurs in the Surveyorship, "the Secretary of the Treasury shall ascertain if any of the subordinates in the customs district are suitable persons qualified to discharge efficiently the duties of the office to be filled, and if such persons be found, he shall certify to the President the name or names of those subordinates, not exceeding three, who in his judgment are best qualified for the position, from which the President shall make the nomination to fill the vacancy." If no subordinate be found qualified, or the nomination be not confirmed, the place can be filled at the discretion of the President. The general impression left by the whole affair is that the Ring has got complete control of the patronage in this city, and laughs heartily at "the rules" over its "poker."

The civil-service news from New Orleans is not very cheerful either. Casey the Collector, who has been one of the main insti-

gators of the trouble there, and to whose gross misconduct in office we have made frequent allusion in these columns, was "investigated" by a Committee of Congress last year, and a very damaging report made on his performances. The report was withheld for a good while, apparently in the expectation that he would resign, and a rumor was spread abroad that he had resigned. If he ever sent his resignation in, however, he withdrew it, and went back to his post from Washington with unblushing front, and he has just been reappointed for four years more. Mr. John M. G. Parker, Mr. Ben. Butler's brother-in-law, has been appointed Surveyor of the port. Parker was one of five "arbitrators" recently appointed to settle the terms on which the city should purchase certain water-works from a private corporation. They fixed the price at \$2,000,000, and recommended the purchase, which was accordingly made. Soon after, they made a demand for compensation for their services, which the city refused to pay, and they thereupon sued it, and it was brought out by the evidence of the president of the water-works corporation that he had paid them \$15,000 at the close of the negotiations. The plaintiffs then meekly and calmly discontinued their suit.

Governor Dix has, as we anticipated he would, disregarded the decision of the extraordinary tribunal described by us last week on the degree of Foster's guilt, and has refused to commute his sentence. We trust Foster's fate will be a warning to all roughs. We will take the liberty of adding that we hope his case will bring wisdom to a large body of clergymen, lawyers, and kind-hearted persons generally, who are in the habit of signing petitions for pardon. To the ministers in particular who mix themselves up in these matters, we would say that their conduct is very mischievous. In the first place, their letters and petitions are not candid and truthful, and hardly can be, when the writers are acting as pleaders, and this brings discredit on their profession. In the next place, they help to create distrust of the law and its administrators, and to confuse the moral notions of the poor and ignorant, by the notorious fact that the cases in which Protestant ministers and members of the wealthier class generally display their interest and "work" for pardons, are usually cases in which the offender has had every advantage, in the way of money and education, and is blessed or cursed with wealthy and "influential" relatives. Witness the Ketchum case, and the Foster case, and—we hope we shall not have to say—the Stokes case. On the other hand, when a poor devil who has had no teaching of any kind, and whom poverty and all its temptations have followed from the cradle, kills somebody, he is left to his fate without a murmur. No lawyers overhaul the statutes for him, no ministers pray for him or weep for him, no editorials rend the air on his behalf.

We would also advise all sensible men and women who have sympathy to spare, to pour it out in all murder cases first of all on the unhappy victim who has been taken off without a moment's warning, next on his poor family, and finally on the millions of decent men and women who throng our streets day and night relying on the law for security, their pockets filled not with "deadly weapons" but with the tools of honest trades and the hard earnings of honest toil, and their heads filled with dreams of affection and the plans and schemes of useful industry and economy. We cannot watch over them too carefully, and feel for them too tenderly; and it is only after doing our whole duty to them that we ought to go to the Tombs to save the men who have been cracking their skulls or shooting them down. We are told that the murderers now in the Tombs, who have for the last fortnight been very cheerful, became very "silent and thoughtful" when the news of Governor Dix's refusal in Foster's case arrived. This is very singular if it be true, as we are assured, that murderers dread imprisonment for life more than hanging; or more singular still, if, as we are also assured, they do not care when they commit murder whether they are hanged or not.

The contest between the people and the railroad corporations assumes novel forms in the West. In Illinois and Iowa, local organizations, known as Farmers' Clubs or Granges, are said to have been formed, and to have succeeded in making the railroad question more prominent than any which has occupied public attention since the close of the war. Large public meetings are held, and resolutions of the most emphatic character are passed, affirming the right and the duty of the State to control freight and passenger tariffs. There are many practical difficulties, however, in the way of this. Illinois has passed laws fixing maximum rates on all of the leading railroads, and forbidding discriminating rates for freight, on penalty of forfeiture of charter; but in the only case which has come to a decision in the Supreme Court of the State, the court has virtually declared the law worthless. It recognizes the right of the State to prohibit "unjust charges," but puts upon the plaintiff the burden of proof to show that given charges are unjust. The decision has called forth violent denunciation of the judge who gave it. As he is soon to be a candidate for re-election, his decision will probably cost him his position.

That the people have reason to complain is evident. It costs more to carry goods from Chicago a hundred miles into the interior, than from New York to Chicago, or from Pittsburg to Chicago. Wherever competing lines cross each other, or come in close competition, freights are cheap. Shippers of through freight to the East often save money by shipping *westward* forty or fifty miles to some competing point, and paying the local tariff on freight which repasses them on its way to the East. The "fast freight" companies, particularly the "Red" and "Blue" lines, are largely owned by stockholders of the road, and the local business of the towns is neglected to give preference to the favored lines, which are thus able to compel shippers to pay extra rates or to suffer vexatious delay. Meanwhile, abundant corn harvests are burned as fuel, and it costs farmers living east of the Mississippi the price of three bushels of grain to place one in New York. Wages are still high, and the habits and expenses of the people are still based upon the inflated scale which war prices made common. The distress in many communities is great, and never since the commencement of the war has money been so tight. This state of affairs is said to be producing its natural result in threats of violence, embodied in the Farmers' Clubs' resolutions. Parties of farmers tender the legal fare, and compel the railroads to take it. The "bloated Eastern aristocrat" is much abused, and members of the Legislature have been even forced to give up their railroad passes.

The operations of the Memphis, El Paso, and Pacific Railroad afford a good instance of the International Swindle. This road was incorporated by the State of Texas in 1853, and its history to the present time may be summarized as follows: 90 miles of track graded, 3 miles laid, and "loose rails dropped along the track a few miles further." Ten locomotives imported from France, and various lots of railroad iron seized in New Orleans and New York for non-payment of duties and for debt. Stock issued, \$40,000,000; bonds and land certificates, about \$13,000,000; total length of road, three miles; total debt, \$53,000,000. In 1866, General John C. Fremont began to take an interest in the enterprise, and a large number of bonds were sent to Paris for sale. By a judicious manipulation of the market, fraudulent representations that the bonds were guaranteed by the National Government, and a forged certificate that they had been admitted to the New York Stock Exchange, which was indispensable to secure their admission to the Bourse, some five million dollars' worth were sold to some "three thousand French peasants." The road then passed into the hands of a receiver, and the bonds are admitted to be worthless unless they are shouldered by Mr. Thomas Scott, who needs the Memphis and El Paso road as part of his Southern Pacific, which it is needless to say is a great transcontinental railway.

The New Hampshire election returns show that the reaction against the Republicans has evidently not set in as yet with great violence. Last year, when much stumping was done in that State, the sum of the Democratic and Republican votes was rather more than 75,000; this year it is (unofficial, partly estimated, but fairly reliable) 59,000. The falling off from last year's vote is, in the total, 16,345. But of this decrease of rather more than 8,000 apiece for each of the two great parties, the Democratic half is rather the heavier, and there was a lighter loss in the Republican districts than in those strong for the Democracy. And if the vote is compared with that of two years ago, the showing is still less unfavorable to the Republicans, for then they lost all three of the Congressional districts and now they have won back two of them. A heavy snow on the ground, bad roads, and stormy weather are sufficient to account for the lightness of the vote, and it appears reasonable to think that whatever Republican abstention and apathy there may have been—and it is necessary to believe that some there must have been—it was pretty evenly matched by apathy and abstention on the part of the Democracy, who are admitted to have been inactive. Apparently, however, they, in conjunction with an unusually large number of scattering voters of the Temperance and Labor Reform parties, have defeated at the polls the Republican candidate for governor; but a Republican House and Senate will elect him. On the whole, it is for the Republicans somewhere near a drawn battle, and, under the circumstances, not discreditable to their discipline.

The news of the defeat of Mr. Gladstone by a small majority, and his consequent resignation, arrived last week just as we were going to press. The interval which has since elapsed has been passed in efforts thus far fruitless to find a successor for him, both Mr. Disraeli and Lord Derby having declined to form a Cabinet, and for the best of all possible reasons—the impossibility of securing a good working majority, and Mr. Gladstone has again agreed to stay in. The fact is that Mr. Gladstone still possesses, in a probably greater degree than any other man, the general confidence of the House. On Thursday, the day after the vote, notice was given of a motion that the vote on the University Bill was not, and was not intended to be, a vote of want of confidence. The University Bill we have discussed elsewhere. It appears to have fared worse out-of-doors than in the House of Commons. Every sect and party condemns it. The Catholic bishops, who are enraged by its offering no endowment for the Catholic University, while Trinity College, the new university, and the Queen's Colleges are handsomely provided for, have passed resolutions condemning it; Trinity College and the Queen's University are equally hostile; and indeed not one of the institutions it affects has shown any disposition to accept it except a small Presbyterian theological seminary in Londonderry. Protestants generally are of course opposed to it from its concessions to the Catholics, and the dread that the new university would eventually pass into Catholic hands; while the Catholic clergy hope for a still more favorable settlement of their claims by the endowment of their university.

Just before the retirement of the Gladstone ministry, the *Pall Mall Gazette* brought against the Treasury the charge of "nobbling the press." To nobble is not to bribe; the process is much more indirect and subtle. A newspaper is nobbled when its support is gained by furnishing it with information. A Liberal Press Agency is set agoing, for instance, in London, to supply intelligence to independent provincial journalists, etc., the Government furnishing funds for the undertaking. Something of this sort the *Pall Mall Gazette* intimates has been done, and as the *Gazette's* article has been called to the attention of the Treasury by the *Times*, it seems probable that there was something in it. There are a large number of Christian statesmen all over the world, who think that nobbling the press—or, for that matter, bribing it—is one of the legitimate weapons of Government, just as there are a large number of financiers, railroad men, agriculturists, shippers, mine-owners, and others interested in commerce or industrial or money enterprises, who

believe in "rigging the market." These practices, though admitted to be, in the forum of private morals, wrong, are defended on the broad utilitarian ground that unless they are resorted to the Government, the party, the mine, the railroad, the cargo, or the crop, will suffer. On political grounds, one of the chief objections to nobbling is that in these days the competition between newspapers is so great, and their scent for news so keen, that the nobbler is generally found out, and nobbling once exposed loses more than half its charm.

The British and Russian Governments are reported to have come to terms on the subject of the Afghan boundary on the north. The Ameer is allowed to push his frontier to the Amu as far down as Khodja Salih, a small place within about 100 miles of Bokhara, which gives him Badakhshan and Wakhan, and makes a very respectable "zone" between the two empires. This line was proposed by Earl Granville and accepted by Prince Gortchakoff, the understanding being that England will use her influence to restrain the Ameer within the limits thus laid down, and induce him to refrain from all aggression, and Russia is pledged not to make the occupation of Khiva permanent. Vámbéry has written to the papers, recommending as a definitive settlement of all questions pending between the two empires the permanent possession not of Khiva only, but of Bokhara, by Russia, in the interest of civilization, and the strengthening of Persia on the northern frontier, so as to put an end to the incursions of the Turcoman hordes and the accompanying slave trade.

The report of the Committee of Thirty in the French Assembly has recommended that the present Assembly should not separate until it has regulated the organization and transmission of legislative and executive powers; has provided for the creation of a second chamber, and has settled the limits of the "pays légal," or in other words the qualifications of voters. But it appears that it is the Government, or in other words M. Thiers, who is after all to draft and submit the bills which are to do all this work. In short, M. Thiers has managed in spite of everything to have his own way on all essential points. The Extreme Right is dissatisfied with the report, because it proposes to make a settlement which may interfere with the establishing of a monarchy, and it is accordingly reported to have broken with the Centre, which is more practical, and is willing to deal with problems as they arise.

The news from Spain continues to be conflicting. Successes and defeats of the Carlists are reported in about equal numbers. The fact of most importance, and best supported by evidence, is, however, that the Federalist Republicans are gaining ground. Of the political vitality of the provinces, and of the strongly-marked differences between them, there is no sort of doubt. But the opinion grows that this vitality and these differences are so great that a Federal union would be the weakest possible bond, and that if attempted Spain would disappear rapidly from the list of nations. It appears to be still plainer that the national credit, at all events, if such a thing can be said to exist, would be killed by it at once, and it would render the maintenance of a national army impossible. The uncertainty as to their future, resulting from this state of things, is naturally producing its effect upon the troops, whose adhesion to the Government is apparently becoming more and more doubtful. To meet the dangers thus created, the ministers are resorting to the desperate expedient of "arming the people" with breech-loading rifles. Considering the wide diversity of opinion which prevails among the "people" concerning even the basis of a social organization, there is a fair prospect, by the time everybody is armed, of an anarchy which will make the Parisian Communists pale with envy. The Carlists, in the meantime, are trying to raise a loan in London, and are levying taxes all through the Northern districts, and promise the Government a "lively time" as soon as the spring opens. Conscription has been abolished, and the army is to consist hereafter wholly of volunteers.

THE MINISTERIAL CRISIS IN ENGLAND.

THE fate of the Gladstone Ministry can hardly be called very important politically, inasmuch as if Mr. Disraeli or any other Conservative should undertake the task of forming a Cabinet, which at this writing seems very unlikely, he would have nothing new in policy or principle to propose. There is not now, and has not been since the passage of the last Reform Bill, any difference between an English Liberal and Conservative which is capable of detection or appreciation by a looker-on from a distance. In fact, it might be almost said with safety that a Liberal is simply a man who hates Disraeli, and a Conservative a man who hates Gladstone, and that Gladstone as a legislator differs from Disraeli in having a more fertile and constructive mind. With relation to what is called "progress" they stand in about the same position. The spirit of change has secured a sufficiently strong hold on the English mind to make it impossible for any minister to stand still. Disraeli would move and alter and tinker as well as Gladstone, but he would do it with less "effusion" and with a less solemn air of responsibility.

But the Gladstone Ministry has been overthrown on a question with which, however little general interest it may have, the Conservatives are honorably associated. They were the founders of non-sectarian education in Ireland—perhaps the greatest boon conferred by English legislation on that unhappy country. The foundation of the "national schools" (common schools) opened in 1831 to all children, was the work in large part of the late Lord Derby. When it was felt necessary to complete this work by founding a university on the same principle, it was Sir Robert Peel who undertook and carried it through by the establishment of the Queen's University, with its three colleges of Cork, Galway, and Belfast. This university was at first accepted by the Catholic clergy with more or less cordiality, as its foundation (1847) was coeval with the prevalence of considerable liberality in the Papal policy, and preceded the ascendancy of the Jesuits and the initiation of what is commonly called the "Ultramontane policy" in all parts of the Catholic world. By the time the new colleges had got into working order, the liberal Catholic archbishop, Dr. Murray, had passed away, and his place had been taken by Cardinal Cullen, who was bred at Rome, and was apparently sent to Ireland with the express mission of pushing the claims of the Catholic prelacy against the state to their last limits. The tolerant, kindly, loyal, enlightened, and somewhat secular tone assumed by the bishops and priests after the Emancipation was laid aside for one of arrogant and menacing hostility, and the Government was speedily given to understand that, on the subject of education, there could be neither compromise nor co-operation between church and state. The Queen's Colleges were dubbed "godless," and denounced fiercely, by synodical address and Papal rescript, as places which no Catholic youth could frequent without danger to faith and morals, and the prelates went to work to raise funds for a purely Catholic university, to be managed by themselves, at the head of which they put John Henry Newman, and began to press the Government for a charter for it, and have contrived ever since to wage vehement and relentless war on the whole system of non-sectarian education, by all the arts known to a clergy exercising complete sway over a large body of ignorant, excitable voters.

Now the Liberal party have always been pliant to the point of weakness towards the Catholics. Their political conscience is undoubtedly tenderer than that of the Tories; they have been far more deeply impressed with the responsibility of England for "the wrongs of Ireland" than the Conservatives have ever made any pretence of being, and have always been ready to accept the Catholic clergy as to all intents and purposes the public of Ireland. Accordingly, the clerical abuse of non-sectarian education has gradually told on them, and they have been led, little by little, at the very time when nearly every other state in Europe is placing more and more stringent restraints on Papal pretensions, into a course of concession which, as everybody who knows anything of Papal history knows perfectly well, can have no limits. There are no

limits to the demands of a Catholic theologian, except the government of the community itself by a board of bishops.

Accordingly, the crusade against the Queen's Colleges produced little direct effect on them. In so far as it injured them, it injured them by working on the mind of the public, and exciting doubts as to the permanence of their organization. The number of students increased steadily until 1851-2, when the Catholic Synod of Thurles officially denounced them. It then declined, but only for a year or two, and rose steadily during the bitter warfare which followed until 1856-7, when as a result of this warfare a Royal Commission was appointed to enquire into their condition. The report was very favorable, and the number of students increased more rapidly than ever until 1864-5, when the Government gave way partially to the clamor by granting a supplemental charter to the Queen's University, enabling it to affiliate sectarian colleges, and grant degrees on examination to non-resident students. Some of the graduates thereupon raised a fund by subscription, and filed a bill in chancery, and obtained an injunction prohibiting the senate to accept the supplementary charter. During this process the attendance declined, and continued to decline until 1870, under the influence of continued apprehension of fundamental changes in the Irish universities. That these apprehensions were fully justified the bill lately introduced into the House of Commons shows. A more extraordinary measure has rarely been submitted to an enlightened legislature, as it really involves a sweeping surrender of the principle of unsectarian education, at the demand of the most arrogant and bigoted body of priests in Europe; at the very time, too, when Germany, France, Italy, are devising means to tie their hands, and narrow the sphere of their meddling.

The new bill abolishes the Queen's University, and substitutes for it a new one, of which Trinity College, Dublin, is to form the nucleus. Twenty-eight persons named in the bill are to form the Council of the new organization, and this Council, after performing certain preliminary duties, is in 1875 to assume complete control, ousting the Provost and Fellows of Trinity College for that purpose. It then enters on a second stage, by receiving into the Council representatives from certain colleges named in the bill, and in addition to this it will begin to affiliate such other colleges, denominational or not, as may ask for it, and will receive from each of such colleges one member of the Council if it contains fifty matriculated students, and two members if it contains one hundred and fifty. Now, the question which not only all Protestants, but all friends of non-sectarian education, are asking themselves, not in Ireland only but in England, is, how long would it take before the new university, including not only the Queen's University but Trinity College, with its "just and old renown," passed completely into the hands of the Catholic hierarchy? Not very long, everybody believes who knows of what sinful games those reverend gentlemen are capable when the interests of the Church are to be promoted. There are in six Catholic colleges in Ireland already about 1,250 students. Out of these, it is estimated, eleven colleges might be made, having each 150 students, and thus entitled to twenty-two representatives in the Council, or they might be made into thirty-five colleges of fifty students each, with a representation of thirty-five members in the Council; and that funds and "matriculated students" would be wanting to increase the number to any extent that might be necessary to give the Church the control of the Council, no thoughtful man believes. It is no wonder, not only that Trinity College, which has just thrown all its honors and emoluments open to all creeds, and the Queen's University, which has, in spite of all opposition, enjoyed the steady support of the Catholic laity, but that men of all classes who believe that the battle of free education and free thought has to be fought out with the Jesuits, not merely in Ireland but everywhere, and might as well be fought first as last, are opposed bitterly to a scheme of this sort, and that they have combined to defeat it, no matter at what cost.

There is one feature in it, however, which will probably, in the eyes of all lovers of learning and of free enquiry, reflect more dis-

credit on Mr. Gladstone's reputation than his other compliances towards the Irish prelates. To please them, he has actually provided that the new university shall give no instruction in mental or moral philosophy or in modern history, and that no examiner "shall attach any disqualification to any candidate in any examination by reason of his adopting in modern history, moral or mental philosophy, law, medicine, or any other branch of learning, any particular theory in preference to any other theory." The object of this is, of course, not only to avoid offending the Catholic bishops by teaching anything of which they are not likely to approve, in some of the most important fields of research, but to furnish them with the imprimatur of a great university for those peculiar views of the foundations of belief, and the basis of legislation, and of the great events of the last three centuries, which are taught to Catholic "seminarists" by their spiritual instructors. Fancy an examiner accepting as good the answers of a young priest, taught under the superintendence of Cardinal Cullen, to questions on the rise and origin of the "Subalpine Kingdom" or of the German Empire! Moreover, a university without philosophy is of course in our day a monstrosity. One of the greatest of living thinkers has said that the sole use of a university is to keep philosophy alive, and even those who are not prepared to accept this high standard must admit that a seat of learning which banished from its curriculum the consideration of the laws of the human mind and of the tests and sanctions of right living, would be an institution for which in our time it would be hard to find a place. The day for that sort of compromise has, fortunately or unfortunately, passed away.

THE SUBSTITUTE FOR HANGING.

THE prevalence of murder in this city, and the exceeding difficulty of getting anybody brought to justice for it, as illustrated in three such glaring cases as those of Foster, Stokes, and Scannell, is causing more than the usual amount of discussion about capital punishment, and is strengthening what is really the strongest argument of its opponents—viz., the impossibility of making its infliction certain. Their other arguments really have thus far had very little weight. The experiment of doing without it has never been tried long enough in any community of lawless habits to make the result of much value. As a matter of fact, the objection to it on the part of the public is found to be strongest in those countries in which respect for human life is lowest, although of course its enemies are found in greater or less force in all countries. Moreover, some of the facts occasionally produced against it—such as the occurrence of murders in spite of the hanging of murderers—really tell against all punishment for murder in an equal degree, inasmuch as we presume nobody doubts that, in this State for instance, murders would occur if every murderer who was caught was sure to be imprisoned for life.

Our present object, however, is not to discuss the propriety of hanging murderers, but to impress once more on the opponents of capital punishment the desirableness of providing a substitute for it before they do anything more to disturb the public mind about it. They have thus far confined themselves to denouncing it as unwarrantable, and cruel, and ineffective; but this is simply demagogue's work. The reformer is bound to go further, and when he declaims against one form of punishment—provided he believes in punishment at all—to say what it is he proposes to put in its place, and to give his reasons for thinking that the substitute would prove efficacious. The result of their labors in this city, and the only result that we can see, is the creation of a mental and moral confusion about the crime of murder, which has not only transferred popular sympathy from the victim and his family to the murderer and his family, and has made it all but impossible to get juries to convict in capital cases, but has rendered the public indifferent and blind to the importance of regular and efficient judicial procedure or healthy and rational judicial habits. What better proof of demoralization could be offered than the efforts made to save Foster from the gallows—consisting as they did of a kind of rehearing of the case

by a large crowd in the street? If that had succeeded, the propriety of having murder cases tried by "the people," through the newspapers, and the verdict rendered by ballot on a separate ticket at the November election, would have been a fair subject of consideration.

We would now beg to inform those who thought Foster ought to have been imprisoned for life, and that all murderers ought to be treated in the same way, and that if they were, murders would be much rarer, that there is really no such punishment as imprisonment for life in this State, or in any other in the Union; and that if the punishment they propose to substitute for hanging be what passes under the name of "imprisonment for life" in this State, they are either talking about what they do not understand, or are asking the community to make an experiment of a most serious kind without explaining its nature. In other words, anybody who maintains that, when General Dix commutes a murderer's sentence to "imprisonment for life," the murderer will remain shut up in jail till he dies, is either deceived himself or is trying to deceive others. We have pointed out more than once that the average duration of a life sentence in Massachusetts, in which prison management is perhaps better than in any other State in the Union, is seven years. Let us now look at the experience of some other States on the same subject. We have before us a medical report made in 1868 on the Auburn State Prison, which has for fifty years been one of the glories of New York. Between 1818 and 1868, 214 persons were committed to that prison under life sentences. Of these, 34 died from natural causes; 8 went mad; 2 committed suicide; 1 escaped; and 10 were transferred to other prisons; leaving 159 to be accounted for. Well, of these 159, twenty-five remained in the prison at the date of the report, and 134 had been pardoned. Perhaps, however, they were pardoned after long years of suffering, and were discharged when age or confinement had made them harmless? Nothing of the kind; their average period of servitude was six years and six months. In other words, when a man is sent to jail for life in this State, he has over sixty-three chances in one hundred of liberation inside seven years. This experience is very much that of all the States. In Massachusetts, 50 per cent. of the life prisoners are pardoned; in Pennsylvania, 13½ of the whole number imprisoned for all periods; in Ohio, 40 per cent. of the life prisoners; in Wisconsin, 33 per cent. In short, we repeat that imprisonment for life is, to all intents and purposes, an unknown punishment in this country, and the machinery for inflicting it does not as yet exist. When we are asked to agree, therefore, that what is called by this name shall be substituted for hanging as a protection against murder, we are really invited to try whether the desperate scoundrels by whom we are surrounded in all our great centres of population will not be deterred from knocking us on the head by the chance of having to serve six years in the State prison.

What, in point of fact, is the effect of this sentence on the mind of criminals now? What is its value as a deterrent against the commission of other offences? On this point we shall quote another report, not yet printed, now lying before us, and we ask for it the attention of all thoughtful men:

"The unanimous testimony of the wardens of the State prisons is that the hope of pardon is well-nigh universal among convicts. This occupies their thoughts by day and fills their dreams by night; to the attainment of it their best energies are given, as well as the greater part of the money they can earn by overwork, or can command, for the race of pardon-brokers is not yet extinct. . . . A person convicted of murder in the second degree, attended by the most aggravating circumstances, who has powerful friends, and is plentifully supplied with money, has tenfold more chance of pardon than a poor wretch found guilty of petty larceny."

If Dr. Dimon had had Foster's or Stokes's case in his mind when he wrote this last sentence, he could not have said anything more strikingly applicable; so that the argument of uncertainty which is so strongly urged against capital punishment can be urged with still greater force against imprisonment for life. Against the former, the prisoner has the chance of escape from arrest, and that of the failure of evidence and of the disagreement of the jury; but if he is hanged, there is an end of him. Against the

latter, he has not only all these chances, but the chance of pardon or escape during a series of years, which is worth tenfold as much as the others put together. The influences which now operate, even after conviction, to save a murderer from the gallows, do not cease with the commutation of his sentence. The money and affection which were used to save his life, would be used just as energetically to get him his liberty. Lawyers would be got to split hairs, clergymen to entreat, Sunday-school teachers to pray and bless, just as fervidly, if Foster were in jail under a life sentence as if he were waiting for death. The pity of his case would be full as great. It would surely be as great a shame to shut a pious, inoffensive, modest youth up in a dungeon during his whole life for having, while slightly intoxicated, struck a hot and impulsive blow, as to hang him by the neck till he was dead; and this estimable though misguided citizen would be back among us in 1879 once more, the pride and admiration of his pastor and his old playmates.

A life sentence, too, it ought to be said, would have no great advantage on the score of humanity over a death penalty. If it is certain, or if the criminal can be got to believe that it is, it is terrible. On this point the reports tell a dismal tale. Insanity is fifteen times more prevalent among life convicts than among the others. Death or insanity, it is estimated, disposes in four years of twenty-seven per cent. of life cases. If you put 100 men in jail for life, and took away all hope, the statistics warrant us in believing that in fifteen years there would not be a man of them left; so that our much-sought-for "commutation," if it were really what it professes to be, would be the substitution of death by slow torture for death at one stroke.

No one should lift up his voice against capital punishment, or "work" for commutations for murderers, without thinking on these things. The question of punishment for the graver offences against the person or property is a question which becomes daily more serious. It is not solved by erecting fine jails, as we all thought thirty years ago, or by shutting a man up for life, as some of us think now. It is no great gain to humanity to drive a man mad instead of hanging him, and no great gain to security or morality to threaten him with any penalty which he has one chance in two of escaping. For it ought not to be forgotten that the tendencies of our day help to rob all penalties of their terrors which require prolonged periods of time for their infliction. As we see in the delays which attend our murder trials, the reluctance to inflict any penalty at all increases with the distance of the crime in point of time. A fortnight after a man has been slaughtered, everybody is willing to have the assassin executed; in two years, a large proportion of the community would be willing to "let him run." So also, if he is imprisoned for life, carelessness as to whether he is kept in or not, and even doubts as to whether he ought to be kept in or not, grow as the years roll on, and under precisely the same influences; and though the public gets lukewarm, friends and relatives do not tire. The effect of the democratic experiment of the last forty years, besides depriving the thoughtful class—that is, the class which looks farthest back and farthest forward—of much of their influence on politics, has through its system of short terms, numerous elections, and want of responsibility to determinate bodies of persons, promoted indifference to remote consequences in an extraordinary degree, and stimulated the tendency to live from day to day, and let the devil take the hindmost. That some of the worst effects of these things are seen in our administration of criminal justice is not to be wondered at. No art is more difficult and delicate, in none are the results of any policy slower in showing themselves, and on none of the affairs of the state do the happy, prosperous, and well-to-do, as long as they are not themselves put in serious peril, bestow less attention.

Let us hope that one of the great results of the reform movement which is now spreading over the country like a flood, will be a calmer and more serious investigation of the best mode of repressing crime than it has yet received. We trust that the Constitutional Commission now sitting at Albany will not separate without drawing up some plan of rendering the conviction of criminals more certain, and

making punishment something more like the action of society defending itself with inflexible will, than of a mob roused to passion by a repulsive spectacle.

FAILURE OF THE LEGITIMIST FUSION.

PARIS, February 28, 1873.

ALL hope of a fusion between the two branches of the royal family of France must now be abandoned. This reconciliation has been tried somewhat against hope. The principles of the Bourbons and those of the Orleans have never been the same; many memories rise like phantoms between the representatives of the divine right and the representatives of the Revolutions of 1789 and of 1830. But after the terrible misfortunes of France, a sort of conservative instinct inclined many to try to bring revolutionary France back to its old traditions. Many who had hardly allowed themselves to think of the Comte de Chambord, remembered that his ancestors had conquered the provinces which France had just lost; they remembered that what is now called France had been, so to speak, constructed by that family which first seized power in Paris, many centuries ago, in the Isle de France, and slowly and patiently destroyed all the forces of feudalism; they remembered that sixty princes of this noble house died on the battle-field. There was in this movement towards what was called a *fusion* something almost poetical. And this was well seen on the 21st January, when the Princes of Orleans went to the chapel erected in memory of Louis XIV.; many witnesses were in tears, and an old gentleman approached the Princes and said: "Thank God! France will now be saved."

Alas! there is little poetry in life, and especially in politics. A correspondence has just been published which shows that the Comte de Chambord is not animated by other feelings than the last Stuarts were, and that he will make no sacrifice to his pride and to what he considers as his right. In order well to understand this correspondence, you must be aware that the tricolor flag has been denounced by the Comte de Chambord as the flag of the Revolution; and that, to all the overtures made to him by friends of the Orleans family, the Comte de Chambord has always answered that he could enter into no negotiations of a political character till the Comte de Paris had made him a visit and recognized him as the head of his family and as his king. "Unconditional surrender" was his motto, not only with regard to his cousins, but with regard to France. The Comte de Paris said that he had come back to France determined to accept the decisions of the majority of Frenchmen; that he was not himself a pretender, and, in case the constitutional monarchy was restored, he would consider the Comte de Chambord as the only representative of this monarchy. The Duc d'Aumale, at the same time, had made at the tribune of the Assembly a declaration in favor of the tricolor flag. It seemed easy enough to arrange these differences, as the Comte de Paris really made a great sacrifice in not bringing forward his claims as son of the king of 1830; some ingenious people had discovered that at one time the king had his own flag and the army another.

The union in the Parliament between the Right and the Right Centre—that is, between the Legitimists proper and the Orleanists—had become very close; these two fractions together formed a strong majority, and checked completely the policy of M. Thiers's last message, which had assumed, notwithstanding the promises of Bordeaux, a decidedly republican character. A commission of thirty members was named at the end of last year, in order to reorganize the relations between the executive and the legislative powers. This commission was almost wholly composed of members of the Right and of the Right Centre. It had very vague and indefinite powers, and its mission could easily have extended even to the preparation of a definitive constitution. The history of its discussions would appear rather futile to an American mind, but it must always be understood that the commission was really speaking and discussing against time; the negotiations for a fusion were meanwhile going on, and the final resolutions of the commission depended on their result. What this result was will clearly be understood if I cite a few lines of a letter addressed by Bishop Dupanloup to the Comte de Chambord on the 25th January:

"When one has received from Providence the mission and the duty to save a people, and when under one's eyes this people perishes, I believe, and many of your friends believe with me, that in a question of fusion there are reciprocal duties. For this question of a fusion is not only between the Princes of Orleans and your person, it is between France, them and you. This is the truth; and it means that in this question all have their duties and their responsibilities. And if ever a forlorn country has asked from the man whom Providence had reserved as its supreme resource kindness, clear-sightedness, all possible sacrifices, it is France, sick and dying. To err on such a question, to construct for one's self, even from a noble sentiment, impossibilities which before God would not be impossibilities, would be the greatest of misfortunes."

This was noble and patriotic language, which loses much of its pathos in

my translation; it was also the language of reason. If, as the Bishop said, a son of Henri IV. had come to France, sick and dying, and exclaimed: "Here I am, I come from a long exile, I am not impatient to wear a crown which could only be a crown of thorns, but if I can be of any good to my people, if you believe that my name is still a force, use me, use me as you like. I will sign with both hands any constitution which may be offered to me by the National Assembly"—this attitude and this language would probably have touched a people which has generous instincts and has never been insensible to whatever has a poetical and imaginative aspect.

On the 8th February, the Comte de Chambord from Vienna wrote to Bishop Dupanloup a letter in which he expresses his regret not to be able to follow the counsels dictated to the Bishop by his patriotism. "You seem to attribute to chimerical scruples, of which God will ask of me an account, the non-success of the efforts so often tried in order to procure a fusion of the two branches of my family." The Comte says that his pretensions have never been an obstacle to such a reconciliation. He has no prejudice against persons, but his duty is to preserve in its integrity the hereditary principle: he is the guardian of this principle. He assumes the situation of the head of a family in a patriarchal state; he evidently looks upon the Orleans princes as insubordinate members of the family; he would have them not only pay him homage but take his orders in everything. Under the old régime the king had an absolute power over the members of the royal family; they were in a more subordinate condition than vassals before their lords. But they had their own domains, their places of surety, their own regiments, and many of them fomented civil wars and made alliances with foreigners. Surely, such a state of things cannot be restored and ought to belong to the past. All traces of feudalism are now effaced, and the civil law does not give any authority to the eldest branch of a family over the younger branch. The hereditary principle which the Comte de Chambord represents, gives him no moral authority over his cousins, and, as the Bishop well says, it would be idle for him to be reconciled with his cousins if he was not reconciled with France. But he does not propose to himself to become reconciled with France; he says again that he will not adopt the tricolor flag, and calls it the symbol of the revolution. "I have, therefore," he says, "no sacrifices to make nor conditions to receive. I expect little from the power of men and much from the justice of God. When the trial becomes too bitter, a look on the Vatican reanimates courage and fortifies hope. It is at the school of the illustrious captive that one can learn firmness, resignation, and peace; that peace which is assured to whoever takes his conscience as a guide and Pio Nono as a model."

This declaration places the Comte de Chambord out of the horizon of vulgar politics, on the top of a Sinai. He is more Catholic than the most Catholic of bishops, more French than France. The *émigrés* of 1815 were often accused of being more royalist than the king; but I defy any Legitimist of our time to become the subject of this criticism. The Comte de Chambord has taken dogmatic and theological views of his own position; he is the absolute head not only of a family but of a nation; and to all that is said to him he replies "*non possumus*." This formula can be understood in intellectual and religious matters, but the relations of the executive and legislative powers, of the king and the parliament, belong after all to the category of worldly things. Monarchy is a human contrivance, or, if it can be considered as divine, it is not in any other sense than a tree or a flower or anything else.

I am not, I confess, of those who admire this extraordinary absoluteness—I don't know, if I may use the word—of the Comte de Chambord. I cannot help suspecting calculation in this affectation of simplicity. A courage which destroys the hopes and expectations of thousands of honest and faithful partisans is not the sort of courage I admire; I see nothing noble in the attitude of a man, whoever he may be, who says to a suffering people, "Ask for pardon, and I will see if I can grant it." I make every allowance for the natural affections of a man; I know what dreadful memories the Comte de Chambord can find in the history of the last hundred years; but is there one man now living, who had any part in the execution of Louis XVI., in the assassination of the Duc de Berry? And if the Comte de Chambord cannot forget this blood, let him remain in exile, and abdicate. But to keep his rights simply not to use them, as the key of a forbidden treasury, is conduct which is neither generous nor just. On a subject which is so grave, I almost hesitate to tell an anecdote which presses itself on my memory. During the Terror, several men were carted away in the famous *charrette* to the guillotine. They were all quiet and silent, except one, who wailed and screamed and was in a terrible excitement. He became so noisy that one of his companions turned round to him and said, "You don't like the guillotine—well! I understand that; but you should not disgust others with it! (il ne faudrait pas en dégoûter les autres!)" The Comte de Chambord does not mean to rule over France, but he stops the way for those who would have been will-

ing. The Republic will naturally profit by it; it will first be M. Thiers's Republic, and there is just now a sort of an enlarged *constitution Rivet* made for his own personal use. After a personal Republic, will the day of a real Republic ever come? This is a question of which the solution depends on so many elements that it is hard to answer it. M. Thiers is a certain which conceals an unknown future. Under the name of republic, the Conservatives will endeavor to establish a sort of constitutional monarchy, in which the king will be elective, and not wear a crown. Self-government, federalism, are conditions which exist in America and in Switzerland, the only two countries where there are real republics. France is centralized, and centralization will for a long time to come give a monarchical character to all its institutions, even if the word Republic is painted on all its monuments.

Correspondence.

IMPROVED BANKING FACILITIES BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND CHINA.

[House Document No. 159 consists of a letter from Secretary Fish covering one from Mr. David H. Bailey, United States Consul at Hong-Kong, on the above subject. It is too long for us to print entire, but the following extracts are a fair summary of its views, which Mr. Boutwell has pronounced "of great importance," particularly worthy the attention of American bankers:]

"At present, all the vast sums of money passing between America and Asia are paying enormous tribute to London."

"We have thus: 2 per cent. London banking commission; 1½ per cent. to 1 per cent. profit or charges of the banks in China and India; 1½ per cent. to 1 per cent., at least, additional expense on treasure; say from 3 to 4 per cent., at the very lowest, which our importers and consumers of Eastern produce pay to England for negotiating American bills drawn in China, India, etc., on London. I think, however, that, on an average, 4 per cent. is nearer the mark than 3."

"If a banking profit has to be made on exports to the United States, American banks and bankers can and ought to make it, and do the business more cheaply than it can be done by way of London."

"The plan that suggests itself is for a powerful American bank or company of bankers to establish branches at all the chief places of trade in the East, and issue credits and buy drafts direct on New York, San Francisco, and other centres, and thereby get the control of the American-Asiatic trade."

"As a corollary to the banking or exchange question, I may suggest the great importance of a coinage by the Government to meet the requirements of the Asiatic trade, or more especially that of China."

On this scheme and the reasoning which supports it, a valued correspondent furnishes the subjoined comments, to which we would call the careful attention of all Congressmen and other persons who have been giving any heed to the views and opinions of our Secretary of the Treasury or our Consul at Hongkong. Since his letter was written Congress has ordered the coinage of a silver trade dollar, weighing 420 grains, and exceeding the Mexican dollar in value by 27-100ths of one cent.—ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Bailey's letter, while indicating his zeal to serve his countrymen, is founded on misconceptions so palpable that he cannot live six months in Hongkong without discovering for himself the futility of his suggestions. If the officers of the Government to whom he wrote had taken the pains to refer to the New York Chamber of Commerce, or to any merchant of general experience of foreign trade, the useless printing of the letter would have been saved.

His proposition is, in simple words, that English capitalists insist upon furnishing the money to American merchants for the silk and tea required for the United States; that they charge about 4 per cent. for doing so; and that American merchants tamely submit to this arbitrary treatment, "because it is the way in which the business has been done for years."

The actual facts are these: A New York merchant wishes to buy teas in China. His first care is to provide the wherewithal for buying. He finds at the moment there is no merchandise that will sell in China without a loss greater than the current rate of exchange. He finds further that if he sends out silver, the loss in freight, interest, and insurance is also more than the loss by exchange. Perhaps, being an ardent American, he then enquires for some fellow-countryman in China who has ready money in that country, and will be willing to receive it back in New York when the teas reach home. He discovers that no American capital goes to China for such purpose, and that his fellow-countrymen there are all in the same box with himself, and all

want money. He enquires what they do, and learns that some of the English residents have surplus funds, and that the American (as well as other English) buy of them at rates of exchange which rise and fall with the scarcity or abundance of such surplus, as anywhere else in the commercial world. He then does likewise. Mr. Bailey would here say that he knew all that (though his letter by no means intimates that he does), but that his point is that if American bankers would "issue credits and buy drafts," then there would be American capital in China ready for this national demand.

To follow that idea: One cannot issue credits and buy drafts to much effect unless he sends hard cash to the desired point to buy with. To send hard cash to China and purchase drafts involves going without interest for eight months (voyage out one month, waiting upon the market one month, transit of mail home one month, issuance of drafts on New York, which must be five months to match the six given on London), besides insurance and freight out, at the least 1 per cent. The lowest interest at which American capital could be procured for the business is 7 per cent. Therefore, the loss by interest and expenses to be made up by the buyer of the money is 5½ per cent. The English money in China is mainly from the sale of imports, and not only lies there ready for use without charge of interest, but has, to the other side of the account, the saving in insurance and freight home, amounting to 1 per cent. At home there is to the seller six months' loss of interest from the usance on the bills, which are at six months' sight, at the rate of 5 per cent. a year, say 2½ per cent., from which deduct 1 per cent., and loss to be made up is 1½ per cent. The English competitor for furnishing money would therefore be in the field on a basis 4 per cent. better than Mr. Bailey's powerful American bank, and it will be allowed at once that the patriotism of the most ardent American would not stand the test of such a difference.

Owing, however, to the demand for money to pay for the tea and silk to England and America (the first fivefold the latter), the rate of exchange ranges higher than the simple loss on sending home money derived from the sale of imports, and in point of fact the average of the year leaves a small margin over the cost of importing silver itself from California and Europe. That the margin is very small is shown by the fact that silver is actually shipped to England from China in the same years in which it is exported. The well-known facts of the case are: that exchange fluctuates greatly at those distant points; that the rate sometimes shows a profit on importing silver from England or California, sometimes a loss; that the condition of the import market for cotton fabrics and for opium affects it beyond the possibility of calculation; that the English banks, for the chance of an exceptional rate, are always ready to import silver at a very small margin on cost, counting interest at 4 to 5 per cent. If an American bank undertook to supply the funds needed for purchases of exports over and above the amount provided by sales of imports, which is what Mr. Bailey advocates, in the increased competition for bills which would follow it would at once have to face the 4 per cent. disadvantage above stated.

The simple explanation of the whole matter is, therefore, that England has an abundant surplus capital, and is willing to lend it to the United States to move across the ocean the Eastern products which she needs. That she does so at rates of interest and charges of commission which make it quite impossible for American capital to compete, if any offered for the purpose. That none offers for the purpose, if only for the other reason that the United States is only too happy to have some one else furnish the funds for the great Eastern trade, as she needs all her own money at home. Probably there are not many even here who object to a little British gold to aid their industrial enterprises.

I am able to prove beyond dispute the fact of the charges being low. When I first lived in China, 20 to 25 years ago, the prominent houses, notably one American, did a flourishing exchange business; that is, they acted as intermediaries between less-known houses and British capital, by buying the drafts of the former on London, giving them currency by their endorsement, and then selling them to the holders of British hard money. There was then but one English bank, and its business was often less than some one of the mercantile houses in its own department. Free trade, however, greatly increasing the volume of commerce, attracted cheap capital, and more and more banks established themselves, always cheapening rates, until the mercantile houses were entirely pushed from the business, the remuneration not being sufficient to pay clerk hire, except on a very heavy business.

With regard to shipments of silver from California direct instead of via England, as it is nearly all English money that comes to China from either place, it is a matter which concerns the English more than it does us. But it may console Mr. Bailey to learn, as he can if he enquires, that the English are already alive to the saving, and, as far as the complicated affairs of commerce allow, do now avail themselves of it. Mr. Bailey's view, that it is a monstrous thing that when the United States is already in debt to England

every year for direct transactions, she should add \$50,000,000 to that debt for her Eastern purchases, is specious but shallow. For of course it is only mutual advantage that could lead to such an otherwise unnecessary proceeding.

His second suggestion is, that the United States should coin a dollar of the same value as the Mexican. This step, well managed, might lead to valuable results. It has been several times considered in England, and rejected on account of the cost. It is quite useless to expect the least aid from the Chinese Government. It has not the power, if it had the will; for a Government which cannot establish a coin of its own can do nothing for a foreign coin. In lumps of silver the Chinaman finds a surety of value not to be had in anything endorsed by his Government. If, however, the United States will issue an unexceptionable dollar of uniform standard and value with the best Mexican, and sell them, with the loss of all expenses for ten years or so, and something below the value of the pure silver in them for the first five, very likely they will become current in Chinese outports, to the great convenience of every one there. It would cost the country a million or two of dollars, perhaps, and all the first would be melted up on arrival in China, but it would at last bear fruit to some one, if faithfully carried through.

EDWARD CUNNINGHAM.

Notes.

THE *Publishers' Weekly* has a useful department called "Index to Book Reviews," in which the classification is by publishers, and British journals are marked with an asterisk.—'Rouge et Noir,' from the French of Edmond About; 'The Hemlock Swamp, and a Summer at the White Sulphur Springs,' by Elsie Leigh Whittlesey; and a complete edition of Swedenborg's works, are among the announcements of Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger.—George Gebbie will publish shortly the fifth edition of a 'Biographical History of the Fine Arts,' by S. Spooner, M.D., with a supplement.—The March number of the *American Naturalist*, besides much interesting matter, contains Prof. O. C. Marsh's description of the "Fossil Mammals of the Order Dinocerata," with two plates of the curious skull of an animal which to the lay mind suggests a cross between a walrus and a rhinoceros, which carried three pairs of horns with tusks to boot, and which in other respects would be classed with the elephant and mastodon.—Petermann's *Mittheilungen* No. 2 of the present year gives a map of the disputed boundary in the San Juan or Haro Archipelago; and, to show the insignificance of the subject-matter of a quarrel between two great nations, adds for comparison a map of Malta on the same scale, the relative area being as 8 to 5.—G. P. Putnam's Sons add to their announcements of spring publications the following: 'Tynney Hall,' by Thomas Hood; 'Modern Magic,' by Prof. M. Schele de Vere; 'Facts and Fancies,' by Miss Sedgwick; 'Rejected Addresses,' by Horace and James Smith, illustrated; and 'The Vicar of Wakefield.'

—Mr. E. Steiger, the well-known German publisher and bookseller of this city, has devoted himself to the preparation, for the Vienna Exposition, of a complete collection of American periodicals, accompanied by an explanatory catalogue showing the characteristics of each periodical represented. As if this labor of love were not sufficiently arduous, Mr. Steiger has concluded to append to his catalogue a list of Original American Works (including translations, but excluding all reprints) and an index "in which the subject-matter of each will be found registered, so that on looking for any special subject one would be referred to the various publications treating of the same." Accordingly, he offers to furnish publishers and authors who wish their works so entered with the necessary blank forms, to be filled up and returned to him. We infer from a circular of his that our publishers have been rather indifferent to this gratuitous advertising, and that if the authors themselves do not come forward, his scheme stands in danger of being thwarted. We need not say that this would be greatly to be regretted. Mr. Steiger may have the poor consolation of knowing that Mr. Leyboldt has been equally unsuccessful in his endeavors to get complete returns from the publishers of their current issues. It is one more argument against the common notion that self-interest and self-seeking are distinctive American traits.

—Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., of the Massachusetts Board of Railroad Commissioners, has recently made an argument on behalf of the Commission before the Legislature of that State, in favor of the purchase by the State of what may be briefly described as the Fitchburg and Hoosac Tunnel lines of road. The purchase would include the Vermont & Massachusetts and the unfinished Massachusetts Central. His argument is this: The experience both of this country and of all others shows, in the words of Stephenson, that in

industrial enterprises "where combination is possible, competition is impossible." Railroads furnish the best illustration of this economical law, and the rate at which railroad combination all over the country is going on we all know. The only way in which the principle of competition can be introduced is by the ownership and management of part of the railroad system of a state by the state itself. This experiment has been tried in Belgium with great success, the effect of the economical official management on the minds of the managers of the private roads having proved very beneficial. To quote from a recent report on the subject: "The state, though always acting on a footing of equality in matters of rates, facilities, or purchase, has been able to lead or drive the companies to adopt its principles without putting in force parliamentary powers, or having recourse to anything but the moral influence of its position. For in spite of the hostility and criticism of its opponents, the state has been able to carry through its measures, and has made a fair financial success, inasmuch as the present year (1872) will probably show a net return of six per cent. upon the invested capital." This system the Massachusetts Commissioners wish to see adopted, and they think it far preferable to the present system of State supervision or regulation. Under this system (now in vogue throughout the United States), the State first gives the railroad to a number of private individuals, and then undertakes to regulate the profits. Now, the inevitable effect of this separation of ownership from supervision is that the corporation soon finds out that it must control the supervising power—the legislature; in other words, the supervising power left in the hands of the State is very soon regarded by the corporation much as an outstanding encumbrance, which must be bought up. Hence the lobby and many other iniquities.

—If, however, the ownership and the supervisory power were united in the same hands, Mr. Adams thinks there would be no more trouble; and he points to the case of local water-boards, where the water-supply is controlled by the local government itself, and asks, Who ever heard of a water-board lobby? The objection that governments have no business to meddle with private enterprises is disposed of very easily. Mr. Adams admits the principle, but says that there are exceptions to it. Whenever any business becomes at once a monopoly and an unendurable monopoly, he thinks the state justified in interfering. This is the present case of the railroads. One difficulty with the experiment Mr. Adams does not seem to have considered, and that is, that in case of the assumption by Massachusetts of one or two roads, and a really honest attempt at railroad reform, through a railroad board, the other unpurchased lines would at once attempt a combination with the board itself; they may not do this in Belgium, but they would in Massachusetts. Still, the principles of the argument are sound, and, in view of the history of the Hoosac Tunnel, the Hartford and Erie scandal, and the Marginal Freight business, any experiment commended to the public by so much ability and study as this Commission has given is worth trying.

—In the death of Dr. John Torrey, on the 10th inst., New York lost its most eminent man of science. He was born here, in the year 1796, has been connected with its institutions of science and learning from his earliest manhood, and here, in quiet perseverance, nearly all the work of a long and most industrious life has been done, and well done. His earliest publication—a catalogue of the plants inhabiting the vicinity of his native city—was almost the work of his boyhood, and of a time when good botanizing ground was found as low down as Canal Street. He lived to see his choicest botanical stations near home covered with brick and mortar, and to extend his investigations, first through the Northern States east of the Mississippi—producing, in the precious years which intervened between the taking of his medical degree in 1818 and his call to professorial duties in 1824, a volume which placed him at the acknowledged head of American botanists; then, in elaborating Dr. James's collections made in Long's expedition, he opened up the botany of the Colorado Rocky Mountains, to the highest peak of which a grateful pupil and ardent explorer has since affixed his name; and in due time, annexing Texas and California scientifically before they became politically ours, he bore the foremost part in the development of the botany of the continent. We need not here enumerate his writings, a large part of which are in the scattered papers, reports, etc., in which discoveries are first recorded; but the complete and elaborate 'Flora of the State of New York,' in two quarto volumes, and the unfinished 'Flora of North America,' should not pass unmentioned. Nor should it be forgotten, in estimating his labors, that, although from botany came his earliest honors and an enduring fame, his livelihood came from chemistry, which he pursued, if not with equal devotion yet with genuine love. Science is a jealous mistress, in our days more so than in former times. The highest peaks are single, and one must choose which to surmount; but the high table-land from which they rise may be more widely traversed. The circumstances of the time and situation prescribed, all but imperatively to Prof. Torrey, as to most of us, his line

of duty, and required that the larger portion of his time and energy should be given to the work of instruction and to the practical applications of science. In the year 1824, soon after his marriage, he accepted the Chair of Chemistry, Mineralogy, etc., at West Point; in 1827, he was translated to that of Chemistry and Botany in the College of Physicians and Surgeons in this city, to which, a few years later, were added the duties of a similar chair at Princeton College. About twenty years ago he relinquished the latter, upon an urgent request from the then Secretary of the Treasury (who knew his value) to take charge of the Assay Department in the Government Assay Office. After this he soon gave up his duties at the Medical College, but was made a trustee of Columbia College, of which the Medical School became a department, and to which he gave not only invaluable services, but also his vast botanical collections and choice library. To these useful and needful services he gave his days—his nights to botanical researches quite to the last. Up to a few weeks ago, his light could be seen until near midnight in the herbarium of Columbia College. Up to Monday week, as we are told, he signed, although with feeble hand, the official report of the daily work at the Assay Office, faithful to every duty and every detail to the last; and then, at set of sun, and as peacefully, he went to his final rest. He was not only an eminently useful, but an eminently good man; and it is pleasant to know that his simple, unpretending, and spontaneous goodness was appreciated, had some of its reward even in this world, and so verified the Scriptural warrant—not, indeed, in houses or lands, or other worldly goods, for which he cared too little, but in that "good name which is better than riches," and in the esteem and affection of all who knew him. Never was man more entirely loved. Indeed, if only those to whom he has been helpful, even those upon whom he has lavished precious time and disinterested service, could gather this day (March 13) at his funeral, there would be a large concourse of mourners.

—The death of James Savage at Boston on the 8th inst. brings forcibly to mind the extent and value of his work as an antiquary. The more active part of his life was passed before the memory of the present generation begins. Born July 13, 1784, graduated at Harvard in 1803, admitted to the bar in 1807, chosen to deliver the Fourth of July oration in 1811, a member of the Legislature, Councillor, etc.—these are dates hardly associated with one whose greatest work appeared in 1832. Mr. Savage, however, was a man of amazing vitality, and at fourscore his heart and brain were as healthy and vigorous as at twenty. The numerous tributes to his memory which have appeared are full of testimony to the fact that for more than sixty years he impressed his individuality strongly upon all who met him. Honest, fearless, truthful, earnest, all of these great words were rightfully applied to him. His literary career more properly concerns us here. Mr. Savage had always a scholarly turn. He contributed papers to the *Anthology*, the *North American Review*, and other magazines. Some fortunate chance turned his energies to historical subjects, and he became the editor and annotator of Winthrop's 'History of New England.' The work was the corner-stone of New England history; the method of the editor was an example and incentive to all later students. Still later, he commenced giving form to his chief work, which was a genealogical register of all the settlers in New England before 1690, tracing their descendants for three generations. The book was finally published in 1830-1832 in four volumes, containing 2,500 pages 8vo. Such a work is without a rival. It is true that the materials were ample and the subject lay within unusually well-defined limits. The records of the early colonists were carefully preserved, and every facility was cheerfully given to the investigator. Still the patient labor, the unflinching energy required, the mere persistence for twenty years in the daily collection and arrangement of facts, were enough to hinder ordinary students. Mr. Savage was exceptionally brave in undertaking the task, as he was unusually fortunate in living to complete it. His work was of national value, for he traced the beginning of the most powerful section of that English race which has indelibly stamped its features upon the country. It is useless to say that the work of preparing the register was well done, for there has been no dissenting voice on this point. Mr. Savage did alone for the entire population of New England that service of classifying and preserving its ancestral records which a score of writers in other countries have done for a section of the aristocracy. As a literary feat in this branch of letters, it can best be compared with Dr. Johnson's Dictionary when contrasted with the work of the French Academy. A single author has succeeded in doing the work of a multitude.

—In one of Dr. Büchner's recent letters to the *Gartenlaube* written from this country, there is an amusing example of what to the unscientific mind might appear as one of the chief dangers of careless scientific observation. He is speaking of an evening party at which he noticed that the ladies in the round dances moved with a more gliding step than do their sisters in Germany. And this fact he explains by those laws of race which

gave the Indian his crafty, silent footfall as he approached the slumbering village in order to murder the innocent inhabitants. In the same way, might not the supper at parties in this country be an unconscious imitation of the orgy with which, in all probability, the victorious red man diverted himself after his victory? In the same letter the distinguished writer gives indication of almost equally acute political insight. He says of the Massachusetts Congressmen that they are, as a rule, among the most intelligent and advanced members of that body. This letter should be translated for the benefit of the inhabitants of North Easton and other places in that State.

—Mr. Tobias Lear, of Portsmouth, New Hampshire, was an early specimen of that class of New England youths who carried their education and thriftiness to the South, seeking and finding their fortunes. In 1783 he graduated at Harvard College, and at the age of twenty-three and after graduation returned to Portsmouth, where his father was a shipmaster, and afterwards a well-to-do farmer. At this same time General Washington was in want of a private secretary, who should also be the tutor of Mr. Parke Custis's two children, and he applied to General Lincoln for assistance in the matter. Lincoln, with the Rev. Dr. Haven, of Portsmouth, selected young Tobias Lear, who at once took up his residence with Washington's family, and became in all respects one of them, marrying for his second wife a niece of Mrs. Washington, and retained Washington's entire confidence during his life. Jefferson, on his accession to office, made Colonel Lear Consul-General in San Domingo, and afterwards to the Barbary powers. Coming home thence in 1812 on account of the declaration of war, he became an accountant in the War Office, and died while holding that place in 1816. What brings this old time office-holder to the surface again at this day is a letter of his recently printed by a relative, in which Private Secretary Lear gives some account of Washington's farming ninety years ago this month. "We are now enjoying the sweets of spring," he says, writing to a friend in Portsmouth, where, no doubt, the wind from the Isles of Shoals was far from being bland in the last week of March, if indeed the snow was not white upon the ground. "My General," he says, "is one of the greatest farmers in America; and I don't think I should be much out if I was to say in the world. . . . The General possesses in one body, where we live, near 10,000 acres of land. We employ upon it constantly upwards of 250 hands. We raise none of that pernicious weed called tobacco, but follow the more rational employment of providing for man and beast. . . . We are obliged to live at so great an expense" [although the General employs no overseers, and the farms are every day, "unless it is absolutely stormy," visited by the General himself] "that it brings in no profit. The negroes are not treated as blacks in general are in this country; they are clothed and fed as well as any laboring people whatever, and they are not subject to the lash of a domineering overseer—but still they are slaves." Mr. Long's note to the *Boston Transcript* adds that "Lady Washington" gave to Mrs. Lear some of her own and Washington's hair, with which, after the fashion of that time, Mrs. Lear wrought on a sampler of black satin these inscriptions:

"This is worked with our illustrious and beloved General George Washington's hair:

"Which covered his exalted head,
But now enrolled among the dead,
Yet wears a crown above the skies,
In robes of bliss which never dies.

"This is worked with Lady Martha Washington's hair, relict of our beloved General:

"I pray her honored head
May long survive the dead,
And when she doth her breath resign,
May she in heaven her consort join."

—A late *Athenæum* contains a story which ought to seem entirely incredible, but which, unfortunately, will not seem so to anybody conversant with the official mind in its lower forms of development. To the end of the world people will kill other people by pointing "unloaded" guns at them, and will fling into the fire, or store in leaky garrets and dripping cellars, records and books and pictures almost priceless. When the government of India was assumed by the Imperial Parliament, the Honorable East India Company's old quarters in Leadenhall Street were at once swept clean of the records there stored. No less than three hundred tons of these documents are said to have been sold to a paper-making firm, and vast quantities of history were at once converted into pulp; for instance, the whole history of the Indian navy perished in this way—and it was a formidable fleet that once sailed under "John Company's" flag, and one which habitually gave a good account of itself. From one of the cartloads of these records on their way to the tanks, an old leaf happening to blow down was picked up by a gentleman, who has laid it before the editor of the *Athenæum*. It is a brief letter written by the famous and infamous Villiers, first Duke of Buckingham, the favorite of James I., the companion of

Charles, and the victim of Lieutenant John Felton, and is addressed to "My very loving friends, the Governors and Company of the East India Merchants." These gentlemen endorsed upon it the date of its writing and of its receipt, "November 28, 1619," and "December, 1619"; and further made a note of its contents: "My Lord of Buckingham about resigning his interest in my Lord of Warwick's goods." It runs as follows:

"After my heartiest commendations. Whereas his Majesty by his former letters, about the beginning of the last summer, signified unto you that he was pleased to bestow upon me that part which belonged to him out of the forfeiture incurred by the Earl of Warwick: Yet since he hath likewise been pleased to write also in my Co (sic) (Cousin?) of Warwick's behalf, I have thought fit to signify unto you that I do willingly remit to him likewise all my interest and . . . that I had therein by his Majesty's said warrant. And so I rest, your very loving friend,

(Signed)

"G. BUCKINGHAM.

"NEWMARKET, 28th November, 1619."

The cousin referred to was, as we suppose, the Sir Robert Dudley, self-styled Earl of Warwick, who fled the country with his mistress, and a part of whose confiscated estates Buckingham, then in the height of his power, of course secured. This same Buckingham—not as yet a duke, however—also figures in another newly unearthed document which, as it happens, is mentioned in another part of the same journal. The "Addenda" to the 'Calendar of State Papers' (domestic series) for the period between 1580 and 1625 gives us a glimpse into Buckingham's house by means of a list of payments made by Mr. Endymion Porter at his lord's command. Among the sums disbursed is one of £303 "to the Lady Marquis." Another entry is "Alex. Brett, for pearl, £30 10s.; another sets down £1,000 to Sackville Crown for house expenses; another, £10 to a musician who presented a set of books; another, no less than £500 to Sir John Suckling, the poet; another, £200 to Lady Purbeck; and the list concludes rather provokingly with a mutilated entry: "given to Vandyke, the picture drawer—" —

—We find in the *Shanghai Budget* an account of a new Chinese periodical after the European model, called the *Ying-huan-so-ke*, or *Monthly Magazine*. It consists mainly of reprints from the daily paper from whose office it is issued. In the second number, the subjects treated take this order: (1) comparative physiology; (2) the building of the steamer that first carried the telegraph wires from England to America; (3) humorous sketches from Japan; (4) ten sketches illustrating various phases of European and Chinese life; (5) five articles on Chinese literature, religion, customs, etc.; (6) two dissertations on style, etc., etc. The contents occupy 50 pages, and the magazine sells for 80 cash (about 7 cents) a copy. Japan, however, by far outstrips China. Twenty-four books were published in Yedo last year, of which nearly all were translations. "With one exception," says the *Japan Gazette*, "they relate to what were once foreign subjects. Seven are translations of foreign elementary works on chemistry or physics, four on geography, two on American history, and three on civil law." One gives the Japanese text of all the treaties of Japan with foreign countries; another, a full list of all Japanese officers above a certain grade; and a third is on the "Principles of Freedom." Meantime, the old-rags industry has sprung up, those now cast off being largely from stuffs of foreign make, whose coloring presents no obstacle to bleaching; and alongside of the hitherto exclusive manufacture of paper from mulberry bark, rice-straw, and similar fibres, the production of paper from rag pulp is now being tried under native auspices. A Japanese resident in London has begun the issue of an illustrated paper printed in Japanese (*Tai Sei Shimbun*, or *Great Western News*), designed to reflect, for the benefit of his countrymen at home, the opinions of those who have seen the world and learned European languages.

NEW WORKS ON BIBLE REVISION.*

ONE of the few creditable actions of James I. was the patronage he gave to the preparation of the Authorized Version of the Scriptures. It appears that this Solomon among kings was partly moved to this step by offensive expressions respecting popular rights contained in notes of the Geneva Bible, which was then in common use. The fact that the progress of philological study and changes in the English language imperiously call for another revision—for King James's Version was only a revision—is now practically acknowledged, even by the conservative class; and a British and an American committee, in co-operation with one another, are fairly at work on this important undertaking. Dr. Schaff has brought together valu-

* The Revision of the English Version of the New Testament. By J. B. Lightfoot, D.D., Canon of St. Paul's, etc.; Richard Chenevix Trench, D.D., Archbishop of Dublin; C. J. Ellicott, D.D., Bishop of Gloucester and Bristol. With an Introduction by Philip Schaff, D.D. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1873.

able essays having relation to it from three of the most eminent English scholars, Lightfoot, Trench, and Ellicott, and has introduced them with an extended, instructive preface from his own pen.

On one point the plan of the present revisers will be conceded to be wise. They do not propose to make a new translation, but limit themselves to the correction of the old. The merits of the Authorized Version are too great to justify changes of a wider scope; while any rule less sweeping would leave untouched a portion at least of its grave and manifest defects. Two things are essential to a good translation. The first is an adequate acquaintance on the part of the translator with the languages which he has to employ in his work. This is the philological qualification. The second is that sympathy with the very life of the book to be rendered, by which one reproduces, so to speak, its living essence. The old English translations of the classics, even when they are grossly incorrect, often have this latter excellence in a most remarkable degree, and are in striking contrast with not a few accurate but colorless and lifeless products of more recent scholarship. Professor Goodwin did wisely in correcting the old version of Plutarch's *Morals*, instead of making a wholly new one. The idiomatic, racy flavor of that early translation, full of blunders though it was, is something almost impossible to produce at the present day. It is a style full of marrow and blood. There was a ferment, a profound religious agitation, in the sixteenth century, which discloses itself in all the literature of that day, and out of which grew the inimitable excellences of the translation of Luther and of the old English versions of the Bible. This peculiar pith, naturalness, and idiomatic life it is possible to preserve, at the same time that advantage is taken of the great advance made since in textual criticism and in the grammar and lexicography of the original tongues.

Of course, an enterprise of this kind has to contend against strong prejudices. Jerome, when he was preparing the Vulgate, was assailed, as Dr. Lightfoot shows, by the same objections which have been alleged lately against any alteration of the English Bible. It was said that common people would be perplexed by the variety of renderings, and their religious views would become unsettled. Even so great a man as Augustine participated in these scruples. Here we may indicate what we conceive to be the principal danger that besets the learned bodies to which this business has been committed. They will have to resist a pressure, emanating in part probably from some of their own number, to retain forms of expression which are known not to represent truly the original, but which have attracted to themselves, from long association, a sentiment of attachment. The plain duty of the revisers is to eliminate errors of every kind, wherever they are discerned. If the decision of all questions were left to the scholarly authors of the essays before us, in particular to Dr. Lightfoot, we should have no apprehension on this point. Nothing can be more sound and judicious than his exposition of the rules that should govern in the cases referred to. But there may be reason to fear that a majority even of the English committee may not be always found willing to abide by these principles. We will take a strong example in order to illustrate our meaning. The doxology attached to the Lord's Prayer (Matt. vi. 13) is acknowledged by competent critics to be an interpolation. This is the view of Lightfoot (p. 44) and of Ellicott (p. 122). It is a liturgical phrase that probably crept into the text from the margin. The revisers are manifestly bound to leave it out, and must do so if they would be faithful to their own professed canons. Yet we can easily conceive that objections may be raised to the omission of a phrase so identified in the popular mind with the Pater-noster.

Dr. Lightfoot presents a convenient classification of the changes which the revision will effect. The first head is that of False Readings. The very defective character of the *textus receptus* will necessitate numerous changes having their origin in this cause. Some of these, as will be seen from the instance just given, are important. Most of them make no material alteration in the sense. The pericope of the woman taken in adultery (John i. 8-11), and possibly the close of Mark's Gospel, are, as Dr. Lightfoot wisely judges, cases to be treated by themselves. They are so incorporated with the literature in all languages which has grown up in connection with the Bible, that for this, if for no other reason, they cannot well be utterly dropped. The best course may be to include them in brackets. Possibly the doxology in the Lord's Prayer might be dealt with in a similar way. This, however, appears to us hardly necessary. The doxology is wanting in the other Evangelists; and how many of those who are accustomed to pray for the forgiveness of their "trespasses" know that they are taking a term, not from King James, but from the Prayer-Book? It is a curious sign of the strength of Anglican conservatism that in the Prayer-Book the phraseology of the earlier translations has been retained where it is not conformed to the Authorized Version. This, however, is not a more curious mark of ecclesiastical inertia than the erroneous printing of

the Nicene Creed in the same manual of devotion; the epithet "holy" being omitted from the Nicene phrase, "one holy Catholic Apostolic Church." At first, probably, an error of transcription or of the types, it has been perpetuated; perhaps because an act of Parliament might be required to correct it.

From the consideration of textual errors, Dr. Lightfoot passes to the artificial distinctions created in the Authorized Version. The same Greek word is rendered, not unfrequently in the same verse or chapter, by different English terms. Examples are afforded by the use of "pity" and "compassion," in Matt. xviii. 33; "children" and "sons," in Matt. xx. 20; "separate" and "divideth," Matt. xxv. 32; "everlasting" and "eternal," Matt. xxv. 46. In all these, and in numerous other instances, an identical word is represented by several English words instead of by one. This strange proceeding serves to perplex the ordinary reader, by suggesting distinctions of idea where none exist. The reason which is given by the authors of our present version for pursuing this course is even more singular than the fact which they attempt to explain. They say that to adhere to one English word in such circumstances would savor "more of curiosity than wisdom," and that they might be charged (by scoffers) with some unequal dealing towards a great number of English words, if they took one to the exclusion of another. To us it would seem that the course which they adopted, arbitrary and misleading as it is, is much more adapted to excite "scoffers" than if they had given a correct and uniform rendering to the original text. The same rendering of different words, by which real distinctions are obliterated, is an equal blemish in the present version. In John x. 16 the same word *fold* stands for two Greek words, one of which signifies *flock*. The point of the passage, which depends on the distinction between many *folds* and one *flock*, is hence entirely lost. The confounding of the Greek words *to be* and *to become*, which pervades the translation, is not only an infelicity, but in many cases materially affects the sense. Faults of grammar, which are very numerous, can generally be corrected with ease. The ignorance of the translators with regard to tenses is one of the most conspicuous features in King James's Version. The failure to discern the precise meaning of the aorist, and the confounding of this tense with the perfect, is a fruitful source of confusion. The argument or train of thought of the sacred writers is, in some cases, hopelessly obscured from this cause. Examples are Romans vi. 1 seq.; Col. ii. 11 seq. Another striking instance is 2 Cor. v. 14. "If one died for all, then were all dead," says the received version. The Apostle says: "If one died for all, then all died"; that is died—potentially, or in idea—when He died; and this rendering is required by the context. Rom. v. 12 is, we think, a parallel instance. It should read, in the last clause: "for that all sinned"; that is, when the first man sinned, and not "have sinned," as our translators have it. There has been a world of theological discussion on original sin, which has connected itself with this verse, but the irrelevancy of which is seen the moment the signification of the aorist is perceived, and its distinction from the perfect. The neglect or mistranslation of the definite article, and the want of discrimination in the rendering of prepositions, will afford to the revisers an important field for the introduction of improvements. In lexicography the errors to be eliminated are fewer in number, although some of them are quite serious. In the treatment of proper names and official titles there is great room for revision. As Trench observes, how much more vivid is the impression made in the reading of Matt. xvii. 10, if in the room of *Elias* we substitute *Elijah*: "Why then say the Scribes that Elijah must first come?" It was the old prophet himself whom they expected to reappear. Our English Bible, as is well known, being not a fresh translation, but the product of a revision—as the title-page says, "with former translations diligently compared and revised"—presents the English language in the state in which it was at a still earlier day. Hence the number of archaisms to be weeded out is proportionately large. The substitution of a single word for another that is obsolete in the sense required will, in many instances, dispense with the need of a commentator's note. One benefit of the revision, it is humbly hoped, will be its tendency to shorten commentaries. Put *urgently* for *instantly*—which no longer has the meaning wanted—in Luke vii. 4, "They besought him instantly," and the true sense of the passage is at once visible. "Strain at a gnat," for "strain out a gnat," is a typographical error which has kept its place, no one being authorized to remove it, even if the majority of readers had so desired.

In these remarks we have confined our attention to the New Testament, to which alone Dr. Schaff's volume relates. The problems to be solved by the Old Testament Committees of Revision are, in some respects, quite different. They have more mistakes and blemishes to remove, but they are saved from much labor in the way of textual criticism; since unhappily, the materials for such an undertaking, however desirable it would be, do not exist.

RECENT POETRY.*

IN his new poem Mr. Morris has given his admirers new reason to admire, and the rest of the public some reason for being thankful to him, for, superficially at least, "Love is Enough" is unlike the narrative poems of which Mr. Morris's muse has lately been so prolific. It is more elaborately constructed than anything else that Mr. Morris has done of late years, and indeed we at the moment recall nothing in the 'Defence of Guenevere, and Other Poems,' highly finished and artificially skilful as was the workmanship in that set of poems, which shows more intricacy of elaboration than this poem. It is a "story which is told by way of a morality before an Emperor and Empress newly wedded," and shows forth the history of a certain King Pharamond. Pharamond the Fred, the playmaker styles him, because, having left crown and kingdom to seek her love of whom he has dreamed, and having, for the sake of her love, lost both the kingdom and crown, he finds that Love alone, and Love only, is enough, and that in his servitude and that of Azalais there is perfect freedom. The Emperor and Empress are in love with each other; they sit in presence of their burgesses, who fear lest the mutual love of their lord and lady should divert from their subjects the love the Emperor had formerly shown them; two lovers, whose love is in its early summer, serve to introduce the pageant by talks about it between them as they walk into the town from the peaceful farm beyond the walls; two lovers whose love is in its golden spring enact before the company the story of Pharamond and Azalais; between the scenes Love himself enters as a sort of chorus, and the music of love-songs is played.

What the play sets forth is King Pharamond's love towards his people; the love passing that of brethren borne Pharamond by Master Oliver, his best knight and best counsellor and second father; and, finally, the love with which Pharamond is inspired by Azalais, whom Love shows him in many visions, and Azalais by Pharamond, whom also Love guides in dreams.

The main story is simple and common; but our brief synopsis will serve to show that Mr. Morris has surrounded it with accessories skilfully designed, which make the poem quite a masterpiece of artful workmanship. Add that, departing from his so-called Chaucerian verses, Mr. Morris has, in "Love is Enough," adopted a loose imitation of English alliterative verse, which admirably answers his purpose of steeping the scene in an atmosphere of mediævalism—of Mr. Morris's mediævalism, that is to say; of the mediævalism of those middle ages when life was made up not as life has been in every age known to history, but quite otherwise; when it did not mainly consist of the great facts of birth, and death, and land-travel, and seafaring, and marriage, and the love of children, and the hard necessity of earning salt to one's porridge, and hope, and ambition, and disappointment, and sunshine, and rain, and affliction, and disease, and the fear of death, and the consolations of religion; but when it consisted mostly of high-waisted maidens standing about in what Alice in Wonderland calls "Anglo-Saxon attitudes"; and of knights who either traduce these maids or ride safely across the portcullis in time to save their mistresses' character; and of walled towns with red-tiled roofs; and of shaveling priests; and of granges about which

"Deep green water filled the moat,"

while, within, three sisters pine for three knights who have returned no more

"Since the *Sword* went out to sea,"

and of haubergeons, and great store of other properties.

In the essential spirit of the poetry, in the range of feeling, and the depth of feeling which it addresses and arouses, and in the amount of permanent satisfaction which it gives, 'Love is Enough' will not be found different from the other poems of its author. It is true of him, under whatever concealments of carefully wrought surfaces he works, and whether he is professing simplicity and Chaucerian naturalness, or is abandoning himself with his eyes shut to a reverie of Norse life or of Greek life, that he is nevertheless always and everywhere the same. The passion of Love, or rather a tranced and languorous dream of the sexual passion, dreamt by one who as yet knows neither men nor women, nor the workings of the human heart, this is always to be found in him; the equally dreamy and more apathetic philosophizing, to call it so, about the vanity of human activity, unless "love, still love," prompts it and is its object and its end, this is equally sure to be found; and so is the pensive and melancholy acceptance of the destiny of man—

* "Love is Enough: or, The Freeing of Pharamond. A Morality. By William Morris." Boston: Robert Brothers, 1873.

* "Songs for our Darlings." Boston: J. E. Tilton & Co., 1873.

* "Poems." By Thomas B. Peacock. Independence: Kansas Democratic Publishing House, 1872.

* "Rhymes Between-Times." By Thomas MacKellar. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1873.

* "Garnered Rhymes: The Complete Poetical Works of J. G. Holland." New York: Scribner, Armstrong, & Co.

"Man that passes by
So like the gods, so like the beasts that die"—

a destiny which is never protested against, and which one is never beguiled or thrilled into forgetting. Very surely, too, as every reader of Mr. Morris knows, does one find marvellously skilful picture-painting, and with one of these pictures we shall bid good-by to the book. It is a book, we may say, which we do not profess to have read with complete satisfaction. The pleasure given by Mr. Morris's poetical skill and his highly developed taste is a pleasure of so high and so poetical an order, that at once the reader applies to him a very severe standard. We demand of a poet so well furnished for the plying of his vocation, that he shall produce in us those inspiring and delighting and elevating effects produced by the best poetry of the poets,

"Who on earth have made us heirs
Of truth and pure delight by heavenly lays."

This Mr. Morris does not do, and the reader is too apt to become ungrateful for what he does get, and to grow weary—although it may properly enough be urged that Mr. Morris has given the reader other reasons for being weary than the one which we have mentioned, and we may all be glad for everybody's sake that the narrative poems are, for the present at least, at an end. The passage which we were to quote is the one following. There are prettier things in the book, but this contains an entirely characteristic "decorative" picture, and the verse illustrates the metre chosen for the body of the poem. Azalais, walking out in the May morning, prompted by Love, who has brought Pharamond to the shores of her land, finds the King sleeping on the turf, and far spent with the toils of his wanderings:

"Not death, for he sleepeth; but beauty sore blighted
By sorrow and sickness, and for all that the sweeter.
I will wait till he wakens and gaze on his beauty.
Lest I never again in the world should behold him.
—May he I may help him: he is sick and needs tending,
He is poor, and shall scorn not our simpleness surely.
Whence came he to us-ward—what like has his life been?
Who spoke to him last—for what is he longing?
—As one harkening a story I wonder what cometh,
And in what wise my voice to our homestead shall bid him.
O heart, how thou faintest with hope of the gladness
I may have for a little if there he abide.
Soft there shalt thou sleep, love, and sweet shall thy dreams be,
And sweet thy awaking amidst of the wonder
Where thou art, who is nigh thee—and then, when thou seest
How the rose-boughs hang in o'er the little loft window,
And the blue bowl with roses is close to thine hand,
And over thy bed is the quilt sown with lilies,
And the loft is hung round with the green Southland hangings,
And all smelleth sweet as the low door is opened,
And thou turnest to see me there standing, and holding
Such dainties as may be, thy new hunger to stay—
Then well may I hope that thou wilt not remember
Thine old woes for a moment in the freshness and pleasure,
And that I shall be part of thy rest for a little."

Among all the books in verse which we have looked over recently—and the number of such "has increased, is increasing," etc., as fast as ever before—we believe the one best adapted to please is the unpretending compilation called 'Songs for Our Darlings.' We are glad to recommend it to all parents who have on their hands young ladies and gentlemen now just beginning to commit poetry to memory; or for whom it is designed that some such employment shall speedily be provided in the interest of peace and quietness, and lest a worse thing should befall them. There is hardly one of these pieces that is not excellently fitted for its purpose, and the quantity of them is bountiful. Many old favorites we observe in turning over the pages, but also many new ones drawn from recent English and American writers, such as Miss Marion Douglas, the author of 'Lilliput Levee,' and the numerous other writers for children who have been so successful in their task, that we are constrained to admit that while we think Cowper's rose,

"Just washed in a shower
Which Mary to Anna conveyed."

ought to be in every family, we are persuaded, too, that room should be made for these scores of new-comers also. It is not a painfully pious collection, we may add, but good-natured, and playful, and spirited. Yet the parent will find in it a very good body of morality on such subjects as that of fighting the cat; of stealing jam; of being greedy about tarts, and afterwards suffering from pain in the stomach; of being generous with your plum-cake, and consequently saved from the not dangerous but painful complaint just mentioned; of untidiness in dress; of unwillingness to put one's doll to bed, and be dressed for "company tea"; of precipitancy in bringing home pies from the baker's and breaking the pie-dish; of assaulting and slapping one's smaller sister; of waking the baby; of crying because one's face is too late washed; of playing truant, and coming to the county jail at last; of rudeness to old ladies, and of many similar topics, all of which are handled freely and forcibly.

Here is an apostrophe to chastity, from a poem entitled "The Vendetta," which is the work of Mr. Thomas B. Peacock, a Western poet, who

appears to reside far inland, in Missouri, but whose poetry deals much with the ocean and pirates:

"Chastity! thou that long hast held
The World's existence on, in Virtue's modest cheek,
Man owes to thee in heart, joy, knell'd,
For little pure th'it's saved from Vice—Corruption's wreck—
Warm thanks to surface, ever gurgling up,
As o'erflows th' boiling-pot, a long chaldron cup."

Here is a much warmer passage, taken from the same poem, descriptive of the person of the Countess Inez Galvo, afterwards mistress of the sea-
rover "Gonzales":

"Ah! here's what allures—here's what entices—
Leads man to virtue or deep into vices—
No sylph nor nymph more graceful could be
Than Inez th' beautiful Pearl of the Sea.
A pearl she was if perfection implies,
Her lips were carmine, dark lustre her eyes;
With brow as fair as lily which blows,
Or airy flake on the mountain's repose;
Carnation cheek, smile of love, teeth of pearl,
A being look'd she from Heavenly world.
Hair hue 'twixt hyacinth and raven's plume—
From Paradise an angel stray'd—Fate's doom!
Like a pearl she was found on the dark rolling sea,
And the only one saved from the wreck of the Bee."

'Rhymes Atween-Times' is a formidable three hundred pages of verse, written "in the between-times of a busy life," by Mr. Thomas MacKellar, and which, "yielding to the suggestion of his long-known, large-hearted friend, Mr. George W. Childs," Mr. MacKellar now collects and publishes. He mingles with these some poems which have appeared already before, in book-form, for in the course of his life he has published several volumes of poems besides this one. We make no mistake, however, when we say that one poem of Mr. MacKellar's is better known than all the many others put together, for Mr. MacKellar is the author of the song beginning, "Let me kiss him for his mother," a performance of which the authorship is perhaps known to one in twenty-five thousand persons who have heard the music. This is a literary fate with which we should think Mr. MacKellar might well enough rest content; though we confess we have read only a hundred or so of his pieces, and something fine may be laid up for whoever explores the rest. Here we give a fair specimen of Mr. MacKellar's productions:

"'Twas pitiful the girl
Lay in a pauper coffin;
Her cheeks were like the pearl,
For tears had wash'd them often.
Ah me! her lot was sad and wild,
A fallen mother's hapless child."

Some children seem, when dead,
As though they are but sleeping;
Her eyes, so wee-bested,
Were sunken, as if weeping
Had emptied out the fount of life
In streams of agony and strife.

Her fingers were as thin
As starving want could make them;
More bones exposed in skin,
The feeblest strain might break them;" etc.

'Garnered Sheaves' is the title under which Doctor J. G. Holland has collected all his poetical works, from the latest back to 'Bitter-Sweet.' Many years it is since the late Mr. Edward Everett's commendation, printed in the back of the volume, we think, induced us to read that poem; and what with the commendation of such a man, and what with the native fitness of the poem itself to please the taste of some readers, we were pleased with it in a degree which we have not found equalled as we meditated it a second time in these pages before us. But the book sells; and after that there is nothing more to be said about it—except that the charge of platitudes has been known to be brought against the thinking in it, and of faleness and feebleness against the sentiment. A middle-aged district schoolmaster in school-hours its thinking will always suggest to some persons; and to these the sentiment will perhaps continue to suggest the same gentleman after school-hours, when some of the larger girls are to be reasoned with. 'Kathrina' remains the least pleasing of this author's works, and 'Daniel Gray,' and one or two of the shorter and later poems, the best. These latter have a genuine merit as character sketches, well felt and well expressed, and they are not weighted down as the more ambitious pieces are. A steel engraving of the poet adorns the front of the volume, which many of his readers will be glad to look upon, and there are half-a-dozen other illustrations.

MANUALS OF LITERATURE.*

PROFESSOR HART'S "Manual" he has made to cover the whole field of English literature from the "Brut" and the "Ormulum" down to the London Times and Tennyson. He designs it as a text-book for use in

* "Manual of English Literature. By Prof. J. S. Hart." Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother. 1872.

schools and colleges, and also as a book of reference for the common reader. It appears to us to be fairly well adapted to serve both purposes, and we should be unwilling to say more than fairly well. A reader turning to the general index may perhaps look up the title of 'The Ring and the Book,' and be referred to p. 512. There he will find 'The Ring and the Book' mentioned at the end of a list of the poet's works, and thus remarked upon: "The poem last-named is his largest work, and the one in which all his qualities, good and bad, are most strongly marked." The whole notice of Browning which the school pupil is expected by the author to learn is as follows: "Robert Browning, 1812—stands conspicuous among the poets of his day, being inferior to Tennyson only." Then for the more advanced reader there is this notice of Browning's "Career": "Mr. Browning was educated at the London University. He was married in 1846 to the poetess Elizabeth Barrett, since which time he has lived on the Continent." Next we are told that his first publication was 'Paracelsus,' that the critics commended it, but that it met with little popular favor; that it was followed by the tragedy of 'Strafford,' which somehow did not succeed, though good judges thought it should, and though presented on the stage by so eminent an actor as Macready; that "so has it been pretty much with all Mr. Browning's works," which a few persons ardently like, but which repel the many by their studied obscurity. The list of the poet's works from which we have quoted is then given, and the sketch closes with six lines of critical remark quoted from Mr. E. P. Whipple, and embodying the fact that in the belief of Charles Dickens "A Blot on the Scutcheon" is the finest poem of the century." This, it will be seen, is neither an extremely good nor an extremely bad account of Browning. A few more dates will be asked for by those who want a book of reference and somewhat less of excessively commonplace criticism taken from all kinds of sources; while as for the pupils who are to use the manual as a text-book, it is not plain that their course print is going to give them anything at all to carry away, nor that they will be much the better for what some of them may get from the fine print intended for their elders.

Uncontemporary authors, especially the more important, and those about whom there has for some generations been common consent and settled opinion, of course fare better at Mr. Hart's hands, and the book becomes more satisfactory the further back one goes. It is evidently proper that the young man should be taught that Jonson was called Rare Ben, and that Jeremy Taylor was the Shakespeare of Divines, whatever we may think of his learning, that, in the opinion of Mr. Theodore Tilton, "swords have not keener edges nor flash brighter lights than the sudden similes drawn by Mrs. Barrett Browning." And of this useful and well-established information the six or seven hundred pages of Mr. Hart's volume contain a vast deal, tolerably well condensed and arranged. We should add that one or two features of the work are unusual in such compilations, and for that and other reasons valuable. Thus, there is a good history of English hymnody, and a full account of the origin of the English Bible and Book of Common Prayer and of the Assembly's Shorter Catechism. Divines and theological writers are very profusely enumerated, though the sketch is apt to be bald enough in individual cases, and the enumeration to include writings which once were, rather than now are, parts of English literature. A volume of the size of this may easily be at once much too full of this kind of matter, and not nearly full enough. Indeed, the general criticism to be passed upon the book in all its departments is that there should be either a great deal less or a great deal more of its minute comprehensiveness; and, quality considered, less would have been preferable to more.

If Mr. Hart's 'Manual of English Literature' suffers from what may be called the obviousness of its criticisms, Mr. F. H. Underwood's 'Handbook of American Literature' is now and again open to another and opposite objection, the editor's comments being occasionally marked by a certain vivacity which gives summons to the reader's sense of the becoming. Occasionally they are of an absoluteness of statement which would not be out of taste in an inspired writer—Isaiah or King David; still it is not to be denied that they entertain. Speaking of Mrs. Stowe's works, for example, Mr. Underwood remarks of 'The Minister's Wooing' that "the scene is laid in Newport in the last century, and that the characters (excepting Aaron Burr, whom the author, very properly, did not know much about) are among her finest productions."

* "Handbook of English Literature. American Authors. By F. H. Underwood, A.M." Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1873.

* "The Normal Debater. Designed for the use of all Common Schools, Academies, and Colleges; as well as a Guide for Teachers' Institutes and Business Meetings in General." By O. P. Kinsley. Cincinnati: J. Holbrook. 1872.

* "A Manual of American Literature. Designed for the use of Schools of Advanced Grades." By N. K. Royce. Philadelphia: Cowperthwait & Co.

* "English Literature: a Historical Sketch of English Literature. By Richard Malcolm Johnston and William Hand Browne. University Publishing Co.: New York and Baltimore. 1872.

* "A Manual of the Art of Prose Composition, for the use of Colleges and Schools." By J. M. Bonwell, D.D., President of the Wesleyan Female College, Macon, Ga. Louisville, Ky.: John P. Morton & Co.

This approval of the lady for keeping away from evil communications and bad companions is a stroke which it would not have occurred to most persons to make, however desirous of being civil to Mrs. Stowe. Burr, by the bye, comes in for another pat from Mr. Underwood. When Mr. James Parton's biographies are up for discussion, Mr. Underwood remarks of the 'Life of Burr' that "not even Mr. Parton's plausible art can satisfy those who know the history of the last century that Burr was not a thoroughly depraved man." Henry Clay, Daniel Webster, Alexander Hamilton, Thomas Jefferson, are other historic personages whom Mr. Underwood evidently regards with some liveliness of feeling, and in contemplating whom he perhaps would find it both difficult and distasteful to maintain that philosophic calm which confers such gravity upon the pages of Hallam, and which makes it, for some people, reposeful even. Mr. Underwood is of another creed: "It is especially true in Boston," he says, "and perhaps in other cities, that there is a tendency common to literary, pictorial, and musical art as well as in the manners and speech of 'society,' which controls the taste and shapes the manners of the time. This is the spirit which pronounces any direct and manly utterance vulgar, and prefers the *etching in* of a thought by some soft-voiced stammerer." In New York, on the other hand, a little more of self-restraint and cultivation would be good for us. We like pictures of large patterns, and are far from "the spirit which induces young authors to strive for concrete prettinesses and affectations, and to consider a sentence beautiful only when, as Turner said of Guido's *Mater Dolorosa*, it is polished to insanity."

With most of Mr. Underwood's opinions the opinion of the better educated half or three-quarters of our reading public will be in general agreement. The best quarter of this public will probably not feel under greater obligations to him than those under which he has put them by making a full selection of specimen passages taken from a majority of eminent and respectable American authors. This he has done with success. Every one will miss some pieces which he, had he been the compiler, would have inserted, and will wonder over the admission of some authors and the exclusion of others. We for our own part should not have admitted the late Alice Cary, if her sister Phoebe was to be excluded. Nor, if Mr. Grenville Mellen, Mrs. Prescott Spofford, Dr. Orville Dewey, and General Henry Jackson are to be included, should we know how to leave out some account of Mr. Bronson Alcott, Mr. Allibone, Dr. Hosea Ballou, Dr. Jacob Bigelow, who has written some very good and well-flavored things; H. H. Brownell, the battle-poet; George Calvert, Caroline Chesebro, Moncure D. Conway, F. J. Child, Asa Gray, W. D. Whitney, General Dix, Mrs. Follen, Horace Greeley, H. C. Lea, who has written one or two of the few American works creditable to our scholarship; C. G. Halpine, Richard Henry Lee, Madison of the *Federalist*, surely an important writer in American literature; Dennis Mahan, Lindley Murray, C. E. Norton, Schoolcraft, Dr. N. B. Shurtleff, William Swinton, J. H. Trumbull, Robert Kelley Weeks, Francis Wharton, William Wirt, Theodore Winthrop, and a dozen others, great and small, but any of them as worthy of a place in such a compilation as the late Alexander Everett or Mrs. Elizabeth Akers Allen—to take two names at random, without disparagement to the persons bearing them.

This volume, let us say, is one of two, the former being a 'Handbook of English Literature,' as this of American.

Mr. O. P. Kinsey, who has prepared a work called 'The Normal Debater,' says that he did so because he saw that there was great need of it. "It is painful," he says, "to behold how little the greater number of professed scholars, even graduates, know of the machinery of business meetings." In their literary societies and debating clubs they have been accustomed to a set of routine by-laws and rules, drawn up to meet the special demands of some particular organization, but these, says Mr. Kinsey, seldom have any points of harmony with the practice and demands of general custom. It appeared to him very necessary, then, that a body of rules should be provided, by a brief study of which any artisan or farmer called on to preside at a public meeting should know how to conduct its business as moderator, chairman, speaker, or what not, and, if not called on to preside, should be able to maintain his rights as a member, and prevent himself and his fellow-citizens from being duped. We confess to being in a condition something like that deprecated by Mr. Kinsey and those friends of his who urged him to publish 'The Normal Debater'; but so far as our judgment goes we should say that he has made a book which will be helpful to a good many persons. There is less than a hundred pages of it.

'A Manual of American Literature,' by Mr. N. K. Royse, is a good-natured book, which, on its twenty-second page and the two or three preceding gives brief characterizations of our "prominent poets—Longfellow, Bryant, Whittier, Poe, Holmes, Lowell, and Saxe"—saying of Poe that "even 'Annabel Lee,' his sweetest poem, is sadly marred by the fault-finding and despairing tone which pervades it," and passing similar undeniable judgments

on Poe's companions. A foot-note to the twenty-third page adds to these names the thirteen following, as those of our best-known later poets: T. B. Aldrich, J. G. Holland, E. Hopper, S. W. Patten, T. B. Read, Theodore Tilton, R. G. White, Bret Harte, J. J. Piatt, Walt Whitman, G. D. Prentice, G. W. Cutter, and A. Pike—a not very Archilochian catalogue, but as Archilochian as the rest of the book. The selections, which are from Mr. Royse's "prominent writers" rather than other writers, make the volume a volume of good reading, although some of it seems a trifle antiquated.

Messrs. Richard Malcolm Johnston and William Hand Browne have made a modest "historical sketch of English literature from the earliest times," which we are disposed to think would be a good text-book in schools and academies for youths and young ladies. It is certainly a cleverly planned and well written sketch, not too compendious, level with good current criticism, not dry, nor goody nor dull, and seems to us very well suited to the end which was had in view—namely, to furnish "a faithful if meagre outline map of the wide and fair domain awaiting students who have just reached the point where they begin to take a genuine interest in the reading that enlarges knowledge and stimulates thought, an outline not difficult to fix in the memory, and serving to locate and elucidate subsequent irregular or desultory reading." We believe we should have enlarged the volume by making a freer use of quotations; but the teacher will know how to make some of the scholars' other pursuits supplement the text in this respect, and the text itself will sharpen the thirst as well as the relish for good literature.

Of the old-fashioned kind of "composition and rhetoric"—the treatise which begins by teaching the uses of punctuation and proceeds to teach the nature of the sentence, and so goes on to letter-writing and prosody, and the composition of invitations to dinner—we have in Dr. Bonwell's 'Art of Composition' a very favorable specimen. It covers all the field that such works as 'Quackenbos' used to cover and much more, and covers it much better. It begins humbly and at the very beginning, among the rudiments; and that is where such books should begin, even when they are to be used in nine-tenths of our colleges; it goes on with great fulness and with plentiful provision for extemporary and other exercises, so as to be a text-book for a two-years or three-years course if necessary; and at the end, and in its more difficult parts, it consists of an amount of logic and rhetoric which will make it a useful introduction to the more elaborate treatises, such as those of Campbell and Whately.

English of the XIVth Century, illustrated by notes, grammatical and philological, on Chaucer's Prologue and Knight's Tale. Designed to serve as an introduction to the study of English literature. By Stephen H. Carpenter, A.M., Professor of Rhetoric and English Literature in the State University of Wisconsin. (Boston: Ginn Brothers. 1872.)—The running title of Professor Carpenter's 'English of the XIVth Century' promises, perhaps, a little too much; but when we read the title-page we find out exactly what it is; and it is a book which we are glad to see. It is a new evidence of activity in the philological study of English, and a new help to the study. It offers to our schools a neat edition of the Prologue to Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* and the *Knight's Tale*; with a life, grammatical introduction, notes, and etymological glossary.

The notes are the special merit of the book. They are very numerous. Morris's notes are full, compared with anything we had before on Chaucer, and they answer very well; yet they make about 35 pages, while Professor Carpenter gives us 130. They are not merely explanatory, but discuss the words at liberal length, after the manner of Craik's *English of Shakespeare*, telling us interesting facts about the derivation, changes of meaning, historical suggestions, and the like, of the words in Chaucer and any of their kindred. There is a great deal of good work in them. Professor Carpenter has brought together a store of good things in philology from Trench, Marsh, Müller, Craik, and Abbott, and illustrative passages from old English writers, many of them taken with due acknowledgment from Tyrwhitt and Morris, but in great part the fruits of original study of other parts of Chaucer, Gower, Piers Plowman, the Wycliffite translations, and less-known authors. There are also frequent explanations of obscure idioms and other grammatical matters, by references to the Anglo-Saxon. Students who know little literature and less philology, and who will not give their days, much less their nights, to the study of scientific grammars and dictionaries, may here find plenty of attractive philological matter served up in such a way as to tempt their taste without much tasking their patience.

There is occasional indefiniteness of statement which might mislead beginners, and which we take rather notice because we have known that the examples of it in the first note have made an unfavorable and unjust impression about the book on casual examiners. The note is on *when*, and reads:

"Adverbs of time, place, and manner are derived from the pronominal roots, and therefore have a conjunctive force; e.g.:" (Examples follow, and then) "Adverbs of place are derived from the A. S. dative (locative); etc."

A few adverbs are so derived, and some of them have a conjunctive force; and some of the pronominal adverbs of place are from locatives, though *hence*, *thence*, *whence*, which he has just enumerated, are not.

We hope the book may be widely used, and brought to perfection by many editions. Every one who speaks English ought to study Chaucer.

An English Grammar and Reading Book, for lower forms in Classical Schools. By the Rev. O. W. Tancock, A.M. (New York: Macmillan & Co.)—Mr. Tancock's book contains a brief historical grammar, something more than a hundred pages of extracts for reading and study, and a full etymological glossary. The subjects treated in the grammar are well chosen, the method good, the language clear and concise. But prosody should be added, since many of the extracts are verse, and there is no topic on which the common grammars are more deficient. So far as we have tried the glossary, it is good with one exception. In obedience to the "bull of the illustrious and infallible Pope Freeman" and the *Saturday Review*, *Anglo-Saxon* is banished. That was to be expected in a book of the Clarendon Series. But Mr. Tancock does not even avail himself of Mr. Freeman's permission to speak of *Old English*. He calls all words from Beowulf onwards simply *English*; so that he gives us a glossary in which varieties of French and Old French are carefully discriminated, while Anglo-Saxon, English, and all the intermediate dialects make one promiscuous crowd.

The extracts for reading are of the best. One by one we recognize them as specimens of that which the critical judgment of England most cordially commends. There are selections from Longfellow; we notice none from any other American. As we glance through the book, we read or remember the extracts with unfailing pleasure; but when we lay it down, and recall our American Reading Books, we recognize in it a peculiar depressing tone and quality. These monotonous cadences of Morris with their dying fall, and these exquisitely finished verses of Tennyson waiving over the vanished life and heroes of Old Time, which run through the book and give its pitch, have a death in life in them, have about them the halo that hovers round decay, and they make a most striking contrast to the breezy, exultant, prophetic lyrics and orations on which Young America is fed.

Words and Places: or, Etymological Illustrations of History, Ethnology, and Geography. By Isaac Taylor, M.A. Third edition, revised and compressed. With maps. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1873.)—This excellent work, which in England "has already been adopted by many teachers, and is prescribed as a text-book in the Cambridge Higher Examinations for Women," deserves to occupy a similar place in this country. Acquaintance with it might properly be made a condition of admission to teach in any school where geography is studied, and it ought to form part of the school furniture along with the atlas and the globe. Tracing the origin of the names of places from common nouns, and, conversely, the derivation of common nouns from names of places, leads into so many fields of learning that it is of itself almost a liberal education. However, 'Words and Places' may be enjoyed in quite another way than as a text-book (in which use of it, by the bye, the teacher will do well to be as undogmatic as the author). As desultory reading it will prove abundantly entertaining. There are numerous notices of names in our United States geography, with some very just remarks on the "barbarous character" of a large proportion of them, as "utterly inappropriate, and fulfilling very insufficiently the chief purposes which names are intended to fulfil." One of the worst features of our nomenclature—the endless repetition of the same name—might be mitigated by combined action on the part of our State and our Post-office authorities; the former refusing to recognize any new town name already to be found in the gazetteer, and the latter withholding postal facilities till the name was exchanged for one which would not give rise to confusion. To make this action of the Post-office retroactive would probably be regarded as impracticable.

Chapter XVII., on the principles of name-giving, is followed by two very useful lists of some of the chief adjectival and substantival components of local names, duly classified. The seventh adjectival head is "Configuration," under which are instanced *Trebizond* and *Montevideo*, the two occurring side by side. We have had the curiosity to trace out both these names in the profound analysis to which Dr. Egli has subjected his 'Nomina Geographica'—a work of sufficiently different scope to be a desirable possession in addition to 'Words and Places.' They occur nearly eighty pages apart, and under different grand divisions, so to speak, affording a good illustration of German thoroughness:

a) INHÄRENZ: I. Eigenschaften; B. Sondereindruck; II. Apriorisch; c) Raum; 3) qualitativ: 'Form.' I. Körperformen; A. total; 2) bildlich; b) nach Kunstobjekten—*Trebizond*.
c) RELATION: I. Räumliche Relation; B. Lage; II. Horizontal; b) Physisch; 1) standfrei; a) formell; IV. nach Bergen—*Montevideo*.

The Great Events of History from the Creation of Man till the present time. By William Francis Collier, LL.D., Trinity College, Dublin. Edited by an experienced American teacher. (New York: J. W. Schermerhorn & Co. 12mo, pp. 377.)—Mr. Collier's 'Great Events of History' will serve very well as a complement to Mr. Freeman's 'Outlines of History' lately noticed by us. It does not aim, like Mr. Freeman's book, to give a complete continuous history, but to present "a series of pictures" which shall fix in the mind of the learner the knowledge of the most important events. This is a desirable thing to accomplish, and it is very well done, in an interesting style—if frequently too rhetorical—and with considerable picturesque detail. The peculiar and most valuable feature is the assignment to each chapter of a "Central Point of Interest" about which the events are grouped. These are generally well selected, but, on the whole, we would rather have history group itself about great men than great events; would rather, for example, give William the Silent than the siege of Leyden, Gustavus Adolphus than the battle of Lützen.

The author shows good judgment in omitting British history in a book designed for English schools, in which, of course, the history of England is studied in detail, and we wish the American editor had shown equal judgment. It was very well, perhaps, to add the Franco-Prussian war at the end; but seeing that Mr. Collier had chosen to begin at the Christian era, we see no reason for prefixing twenty-nine pages of earlier history, of which fourteen are devoted to the people of Israel, about two-thirds of a page to Greece, and less than half a page to Rome. And there is certainly as good reason for excluding American history as British. The pupil will perhaps be rather bewildered by coming upon King Philip's War, illustrated by a passage from one of Everett's speeches, sandwiched in between the Fall of Granada and Luther's Reformation. Neither is this American part so well done as to justify its insertion. On page 314, we have a succession of eleven steps in the progress of the sentiment of disunion, the third of which is, "Mr. Quincy was here called to order by Mr. Poindexter."

Of Mr. Collier's false rhetoric we have already spoken. A few other defects may be mentioned. He asserts gravely, p. 58, that Julian the Apostate was prevented from rebuilding the Temple of Jerusalem by "balls of fire bursting again and again from the earth." On the next page, Theodosius is, by implication, commended "for having put down by rigorous laws the last remnants of Paganism and the Arian heresy"; for Mr. Collier goes on with a "but" to condemn his massacre of the Thessalonians as "a dark blot upon his fame." There is no intimation, by the way, either in text or chronological table, that Theodosius united the entire empire under his rule. On p. 56, the curials are called "men high in the magistracy," instead of the hereditary governing aristocracy of the towns; p. 359, Lorraine is said to have taken its name from the Emperor Lothaire, instead of from his son.

The book contains some very good chronological tables, lists of distinguished men, and a geographical appendix, one of its best features.

The Historical Geography of the Clans of Scotland. By T. B. Johnston and Col. James A. Robertson. (Philadelphia and New York: Geo. Gebbie.)—This is a thin quarto containing a large colored map of the Scottish clans, with the possessions of the Highland proprietors according to the acts of Parliament of 1587 and 1594—a period when, as is stated in the explanatory text, "most of the clans held their original positions, as the encroachments and oppressions of the stronger ones had not been fully effected." "The rotation and the numbering of the clans have been made exactly as they occur in the Acts of Parliament," and the map is offered to the public as the first and only properly authenticated one of its kind. The letterpress consists besides of statistics of the strength of the Highland forces in 1715 and the badges and war-cries of the clans. Then follows an itinerary of Prince Charles, the Pretender, from the time of his landing to his flight from the country, and a detailed account of the three important and decisive battles of his campaign on Scottish soil—Prestonpans, Falkirk, and Culloden, illustrated by plans of each engagement and a general map showing the routes of the contending armies. And finally, the Act of Parliament of 1746, for disarming the Highlands and restraining the use of the Highland dress, is reproduced in full. This work, therefore, has a decided value for the student of English history in connection with his other reading. It is handsomely printed and bound, but the punctuation has been surprisingly neglected.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
About (E.), Handbook of Social Economy.....	(D. Appleton & Co.)
As She Would Have It.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Cooper (J. F.), The Pilot.....	(D. Appleton & Co.)
De Liefde (J. B.), Galama; or, The Beggars, swd.....	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) \$9 75
Draper (Dr. J. C.), Year-book of Nature and Popular Science for 1872.....	"
Duffley (Mrs. E. B.), What Women Should Know.....	(J. M. Stoddard & Co.)
Dumas (A.), The Forty-five Guardsmen, swd.....	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 1 00
Elloart (Mrs.), Woman's Wrong.....	" 1 75
Gibbon (C.), Robin Gray, swd.....	(Harper & Bros.) 0 50
Hall (F.), Recent Exemplifications of False Philology.....	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 00
Hazard (S.), Santo Domingo, Past and Present.....	(Harper & Bros.)
Huntington (Rev. F. D.), Steps to a Living Faith, swd.....	(E. P. Lutton & Co.)
Lester (C. E.), The Napoleon Dynasty.....	(Sheldon & Co.) 2 50
Lidell (Dr. J. A.), Treatise on Apoplexy.....	(Wm. Wood & Co.) 4 00
Medhurst (W. H.), The Foreigner in Far Cathay.....	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Mivart (St. George), Lessons in Elementary Anatomy.....	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 00
Moon (G. W.), The Soul's Inquiries Answered.....	(Shepard & Gill) 1 00
Pater (W. H.), Studies in the History of the Renaissance.....	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 50
Putnam (F. W.), Mounds at Merom and Hutsonville on the Wabash, swd.....	(Salem)
Peacock (T. B.), Poems.....	(Independence)
Rivers (P.), Lyrics.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Rockwell (Mrs. M. E.), Rose Thorpe's Ambition.....	(J. C. Garrigue & Co.) 1 25
Speight (T. W.), Under Lock and Key.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 75
Saunders (C.), New System of Latin Paradigms.....	"
Taylor (B.), Lars: A Pastoral of Norway.....	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 1 50
Thomson (Prof. C. W.), The Depths of the Sea.....	(Macmillan & Co.) 9 00
The "Old Catholics" at Cologne.....	(James A. McGee) 0 75

Fine Arts.

THE KENSETT RELICS.

THE quantity of work left behind him by the late J. F. Kensett is a matter of honest astonishment to the public, considering the apparent hesitancy of the supply when he lived. It was not an easy thing to obtain a specimen from Mr. Kensett. Intending purchasers were often disappointed, and the dealers who approached him with never so pathetic appeals knew well what it was to descend empty from the studio. The products of his toil thus kept an appearance of preciousness and rare estimation. People supposed that the flow of his art was difficult, as it was exquisite and pure. But what the living Kensett gave so sparingly, the dead Kensett gives in a cataclysm. A few dozen or a hundred posthumous works might perhaps have been expected by his admirers. But the collection at the Academy numbers vastly more than that. On the night of the private view, from which our impression is taken, the catalogues were not finished, but the paintings cannot fall far short of seven hundred. It is not easy to see why Mr. Kensett kept by him all these pictures, now filling to repletion our largest gallery. We must fancy that the painter, trying to adjust his work

to the temperament of the purchaser, found in each case some incongruity which forbade his allowing the canvas to be borne away, though that seems strange, as occurring in a thousand cases; or else, that in every picture some keystone to bind the whole composition together was felt by his sensitive intelligence to be lacking. No lack, however, is apparent to the ordinary eye. The pictures will be called fair specimens of their delightful artist, most of them being as fresh in appearance as if painted yesterday, while only a few are sketches. They are a good deal alike, showing a kind of aristocratic recoiling from melodrama, while they exult in their keen, delicate relish for out-of-doors—a relish they have the faculty to impart. They never fail in expressing the limpidity of air and the severity and uncontaminated freshness of the sea. They are the pages of a rather wide painter's itinerary, ranging from Switzerland and Italy to England and home; with mountains in New Hampshire and in Colorado; banks of the Hudson and the Missouri; and our sea-coast from Maine to Connecticut. Occasionally there are views of famous places; among the best of these are the "Niagara Whirlpool" (400), the "Niagara" (287), and the "Rapids" (50), as they pour out of the horizon. Such a subject as Niagara the artist treats without forsaking his calm, like a cultured elocutionist who declaims the most impassioned text, never losing his high-bred balance. So his "Valley of Valmont, Colorado" (283), with a line of distant snow-peaks flashing like a pennon against the uttermost blue, is lofty and dignified, but not in the least dizzy. He is never oppressed by his subject. Artist-like, too, although he sometimes concedes to the public their favorite Murray's guide-book topography, and spares them an occasional Windsor Castle or View of Amalfi, he is not happiest in such scenes à grande orchestre. His virtue comes to him in those works where Nature is caught arranging her artistic motives, and which a man who knows what he is about finds almost anywhere. Nothing among these studies is better than his dark rocks threaded with veins of cataract in deep transparent shadow, such as 275 and 387; his plumes of palpitating birch and aspen trees, like 87, 264, and 267; or such a placid stretch of the Sound as this (100) seen from near his atelier at Darien, where the water is pallid with mist, and the horizon defined by one triangle of leaning sail. These, and many other such as these, show an interpreter looking at Nature in his own way, with perfect unconventionality, and with a sort of fearless gentleness. They remind us now and then of some fine period from Addison. Hung beside his own pictures are the little French landscapes he bought from time to time—a cloudy Troyon or a crisp Rousseau—and which seem in such a company to have something strangely rich and real about them, showing as humming-birds would show in a collection of cameos. The foreign pictures, it appears, are offered to the Metropolitan Museum of this city, in case a purchase equal to their value is made from among the Kensett paintings; but the published estimate of the European collection is not borne out by the specimens on exhibition. We shall be glad of any arrangement, however, which secures us a permanent gallery of Kensett's chaste and tender art.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

MARCH 17, 1873.

ADVICES from Washington state that the currency has again been inflated to the extent of \$1,059,000 up to Tuesday last; later in the week, \$50,000 of this amount had been withdrawn. This further increase of the currency has been semi-officially explained by the Treasury authorities by the fact that the appropriation bills, passed by Congress, made immediate demand for a greater amount than could be met by the Treasury. The increased pay voted to themselves by members of Congress, before they left for their respective homes, took from the Treasury about \$1,500,000 at one fell swoop.

The money market has remained stringent; the range of rates during the week being $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{8}$ in addition to the legal interest. The market for commercial paper continues to be affected by the monetary stringency upon call loans; the best names, having a short time to run, are quoted 9 to 10, and other paper of an inferior grade, but very good, sold as high as 15. An improvement in the condition of the money market can hardly be expected before the 15th of April, as considerable amounts of currency will be needed in Pennsylvania and other States during this interval.

The bank statement for the week shows no material change, the loss in legal tenders and specie being nearly offset by corresponding decrease of liabilities in the shape of deposits and circulation. The following are the statements for the past two weeks:

	March 8.	March 15.	Differences.
Loans.....	\$280,351,300	\$278,028,600	Dec. \$2,322,700
Specie.....	17,149,600	16,946,700	Dec. 202,900
Circulation.....	27,801,200	27,610,400	Dec. 190,800
Deposits.....	199,508,700	196,095,400	Dec. 3,413,300
Legal tenders.....	39,473,000	38,715,500	Dec. 757,500

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	March 8.	March 15.	Differences.
Specie.....	\$17,149,600	\$16,946,700	Dec. \$202,900
Legal tenders.....	39,473,000	38,715,500	Dec. 757,500
Total reserve.....	\$56,622,600	\$55,662,200	Dec. \$960,400
Circulation.....	27,801,200	27,610,400	Dec. 190,800
Deposits.....	199,508,700	196,095,400	Dec. 3,413,300
Total liabilities.....	\$227,309,900	\$223,705,800	Dec. \$3,604,100
25 per cent. reserve.....	56,827,475	55,926,450	
Deficiency in legal reserve.....	204,875	264,250	

The following table shows the respective condition of the National and State banks in the Clearing House:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans.....	\$240,145,300	\$37,883,400	\$278,028,600
Specie.....	15,546,600	1,400,100	16,946,700
Legal Tenders.....	34,915,500	3,800,000	38,715,500
Net Deposits.....	170,079,800	26,015,600	196,095,400
Circulation.....	27,567,400	43,000	27,610,400

The stock market has been dull, and the dealings to any great extent confined to a few speculative favorites. As we have said before, prices are too high and money is too tight to tempt the general public to enter the vortex of speculation. "Those who are outside don't want to get in, and those who are in can't get out," as the late James Fisk, jr., replied to a committee soliciting subscriptions towards fencing a cemetery in his native town. A decline has taken place in Boston, Hartford & Erie, the ostensible reason being the lawsuit going on between the bondholders and the company; probably the real reason is that some 40,000 shares of the stock were thrown upon the market on Thursday and Friday.

Rock Island advanced to 117 $\frac{3}{4}$ on Tuesday, and the old reliable point, that the Pennsylvania Railroad Company was seeking to secure a controlling amount of the stock, was freely used to induce purchases at the advanced price. At the close of the week the price dropped to 114 $\frac{1}{2}$, closing at 115 $\frac{1}{4}$.

The Milwaukee & St. Paul stocks have shown rather more activity, and prices have advanced to 56 for the common, and 76 $\frac{1}{4}$ for the preferred. The better feeling in these stocks is due to a proposition recently submitted to the managements of the Milwaukee & St. Paul and the Chicago & North-western Railroad Companies, to put an end to the disastrous fight which for some time has been going on between the two roads in their competition for business.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending March 15, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'ay.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	104 $\frac{1}{4}$ 106 $\frac{1}{4}$	105 $\frac{1}{4}$ 106 $\frac{1}{4}$	106 $\frac{1}{4}$ 106	105 106 $\frac{1}{4}$	105 $\frac{1}{4}$ 105 $\frac{1}{4}$	101 $\frac{1}{4}$ 105 $\frac{1}{4}$	98,400
Lake Shore.....	94 $\frac{1}{4}$ 95 $\frac{1}{4}$	94 $\frac{1}{4}$ 95 $\frac{1}{4}$	94 $\frac{1}{4}$ 95 $\frac{1}{4}$	95 $\frac{1}{4}$ 96	95 $\frac{1}{4}$ 96 $\frac{1}{4}$	94 $\frac{1}{4}$ 95 $\frac{1}{4}$	162,200
Erie.....	64 $\frac{1}{4}$ 65 $\frac{1}{4}$	64 $\frac{1}{4}$ 65 $\frac{1}{4}$	65 65 $\frac{1}{4}$	64 $\frac{1}{4}$ 65 $\frac{1}{4}$	65 $\frac{1}{4}$ 66	65 $\frac{1}{4}$ 66 $\frac{1}{4}$	80,000
do. pfd.....	75 76 $\frac{1}{4}$	75 76 $\frac{1}{4}$	75 76 $\frac{1}{4}$	76 $\frac{1}{4}$ 76 $\frac{1}{4}$	74 75	75 75 $\frac{1}{4}$	
Union Pacific.....	35 $\frac{1}{4}$ 35 $\frac{1}{4}$	35 $\frac{1}{4}$ 35 $\frac{1}{4}$	35 $\frac{1}{4}$ 35 $\frac{1}{4}$	34 $\frac{1}{4}$ 35 $\frac{1}{4}$	34 $\frac{1}{4}$ 34 $\frac{1}{4}$	34 $\frac{1}{4}$ 34 $\frac{1}{4}$	27,300
Chi. & N. W.	82 81 $\frac{1}{4}$	81 $\frac{1}{4}$ 83	82 $\frac{1}{4}$ 82 $\frac{1}{4}$	82 $\frac{1}{4}$ 82 $\frac{1}{4}$	89 $\frac{1}{4}$ 89 $\frac{1}{4}$	89 $\frac{1}{4}$ 89 $\frac{1}{4}$	300
do. pfd.....	89 $\frac{1}{4}$ 89 $\frac{1}{4}$	89 $\frac{1}{4}$ 89 $\frac{1}{4}$	89 $\frac{1}{4}$ 89 $\frac{1}{4}$	89 $\frac{1}{4}$ 89 $\frac{1}{4}$	89 $\frac{1}{4}$ 89 $\frac{1}{4}$	89 $\frac{1}{4}$ 89 $\frac{1}{4}$	1,800
N. J. Central.....	100 101	101 104 $\frac{1}{4}$	104 $\frac{1}{4}$ 104 $\frac{1}{4}$	103 $\frac{1}{4}$ 104 $\frac{1}{4}$	103 $\frac{1}{4}$ 103 $\frac{1}{4}$	103 $\frac{1}{4}$ 103 $\frac{1}{4}$	900
Rock Island.....	114 $\frac{1}{4}$ 116 $\frac{1}{4}$	115 $\frac{1}{4}$ 117 $\frac{1}{4}$	115 $\frac{1}{4}$ 116 $\frac{1}{4}$	115 $\frac{1}{4}$ 116 $\frac{1}{4}$	114 $\frac{1}{4}$ 115 $\frac{1}{4}$	114 $\frac{1}{4}$ 115 $\frac{1}{4}$	95,500
Mil. & St. Paul.....	53 $\frac{1}{4}$ 53 $\frac{1}{4}$	53 $\frac{1}{4}$ 54 $\frac{1}{4}$	54 54 $\frac{1}{4}$	54 $\frac{1}{4}$ 54 $\frac{1}{4}$	55 55 $\frac{1}{4}$	55 $\frac{1}{4}$ 56 $\frac{1}{4}$	13,500
do. pfd.....	73 $\frac{1}{4}$ 74	74 75	74 $\frac{1}{4}$ 74 $\frac{1}{4}$	74 $\frac{1}{4}$ 75	75 75 $\frac{1}{4}$	75 $\frac{1}{4}$ 76 $\frac{1}{4}$	14,000
Wabash.....	73 $\frac{1}{4}$ 74 $\frac{1}{4}$	73 $\frac{1}{4}$ 74 $\frac{1}{4}$	74 $\frac{1}{4}$ 74 $\frac{1}{4}$	73 $\frac{1}{4}$ 74 $\frac{1}{4}$	73 $\frac{1}{4}$ 74 $\frac{1}{4}$	73 $\frac{1}{4}$ 74 $\frac{1}{4}$	10,200
D. L. & Western.....	101 $\frac{1}{4}$ 101 $\frac{1}{4}$	101 $\frac{1}{4}$ 102	101 $\frac{1}{4}$ 101 $\frac{1}{4}$	101 $\frac{1}{4}$ 101 $\frac{1}{4}$	101 $\frac{1}{4}$ 101 $\frac{1}{4}$	101 $\frac{1}{4}$ 101 $\frac{1}{4}$	1,800
B. H. & Erie.....	108 $\frac{1}{4}$ 109 $\frac{1}{4}$	108 $\frac{1}{4}$ 109	109 109 $\frac{1}{4}$	107 $\frac{1}{4}$ 109	108 $\frac{1}{4}$ 107 $\frac{1}{4}$	107 $\frac{1}{4}$ 107 $\frac{1}{4}$	50,500
O. & M.....	46 46 $\frac{1}{4}$	46 $\frac{1}{4}$ 46 $\frac{1}{4}$	46 $\frac{1}{4}$ 46 $\frac{1}{4}$	46 46 $\frac{1}{4}$	45 $\frac{1}{4}$ 46 $\frac{1}{4}$	45 $\frac{1}{4}$ 46	38,300
C. C. & I. C.....	40 41	40 $\frac{1}{4}$ 41 $\frac{1}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{4}$ 42 $\frac{1}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{4}$ 41 $\frac{1}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{4}$ 40 $\frac{1}{4}$	41 41	57,100
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Pacific Mail.....	56 $\frac{1}{4}$ 60 $\frac{1}{4}$	60 62	58 60 $\frac{1}{4}$	56 $\frac{1}{4}$ 58 $\frac{1}{4}$	56 $\frac{1}{4}$ 57 $\frac{1}{4}$	56 $\frac{1}{4}$ 57 $\frac{1}{4}$	269,300

The following is a synopsis of the report of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company at its annual meeting of stockholders on Tuesday. The receipts for the year from the roads owned or operated by the Company, east of Pittsburg, were thus reported:

From the Pennsylvania Railroad.....	\$22,012,000
Philadelphia.....	3,984,000
New Jersey Roads and Canal.....	10,452,000

Total.....	\$36,448,000
Operating expenses on above.....	25,431,000

Net income.....	\$11,017,000
The lines west of Pittsburg operated by the Pennsylvania Company paid a net dividend upon the stock of this Company owned by the Pennsylvania Railroad Company of.....	\$40,000

Net income.....	\$11,257,000
-----------------	--------------

The Company paid during the year:

10 per cent. on capital and taxes.....	\$4,711,000
Interest and lease charges.....	4,171,000
Balance to surplus account.....	2,375,000

Total.....	\$11,257,000
------------	--------------

The Company contemplates laying two more tracks between Philadelphia and Pittsburg.

The Government bond market has been steady and dull, with the market at the close a fraction "off" from the highest quotations of the week. The Treasury purchased \$500,000 5-20's on Wednesday at prices ranging from 113.36 to 113.46. \$2,342,100 bonds were offered at 114.94 and under, gold being 115 $\frac{1}{4}$ at noon. The entire amount offered was under par.

The chief feature in State bonds has been the activity and buoyancy of Tennessee, the prices since our last having risen to 25. Business in railroad bonds has been very small. The different Union Pacific bonds, particularly the Incomes, are stronger, and there is a more settled feeling in them.

The gold "clique" took advantage of the generally prevalent feeling that a further issue of greenbacks would be made, to sell out a large part of their holdings. It is not at all probable that all the gold held by the "clique" was sold, and a sharp upward movement may be engineered at any time for the purpose of marketing the balance. The Treasury sale of \$1,500,000 gold on Thursday was made at 114.92 to 115.07, the price of gold at noon in the open market being 115 $\frac{1}{4}$. The price during the week has ranged between 114 $\frac{1}{4}$ and 115 $\frac{1}{4}$; the closing price on Saturday was 115.

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